AMERICAN ANNALS

OF

The Deaf

ORGAN OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

EDITED BY

IRVING S. FUSFELD

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

PERCIVAL HALL, OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA; FRANK M. DRIGGS, OF UTAH; H. M. McMANAWAY, OF VIRGINIA; THOMAS S. McALONEY, OF COLORADO; W. LAURENS WALKER, OF SOUTH CAROLINA, AND FRANK W. BOOTH, OF NEBRASKA

COMMITTEE OF THE CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF

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MEETING OF THE CONFERENCE

Attention is once more called to the Fifteenth Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf to be held in Colorado Springs, Colorado, Monday evening, September 29, to Friday, October 3, 1930.

The program as given in the May ANNALS has been agreed to practically *in toto* and it is hoped will be stimulating and helpful. All heads of schools are urged to attend and to take part in the meetings.

Dr. T. S. McAloney, of the Colorado School, would like to have requests for reservations at the headquarters, the Antlers Hotel, as soon as possible. He has planned a number of trips for members which will not be soon forgotten.

It is possible to purchase round-trip tourist tickets to Colorado Springs from points East at greatly reduced rates, good for journeys going until October 1 (arrival in Colorado) and returning until October 31, with a liberal variety of routing and stop-over privileges.

PERCIVAL HALL,

Chairman, Executive Committee.

OBJECTIVE TESTS IN HISTORY

It has been frequently discussed in educational journals that the traditional question examinations in vogue for many years do not really measure a pupil's knowledge of a subject. There are other factors in the equation that need to be satisfied.

Let us take history as an example. Suppose Professor M makes up a set of questions to cover the entire period of American history. As he makes out his questions, he has in mind a certain line of thought and facts that answer the topics satisfactorily.

In the examination two important factors stand out. The pupil's personal choice of relevant and irrelevant, important and unimportant answers proves more or less his immaturity of thought and evaluation of historical data. The second factor is the mature adult bias of what each teacher has in mind as the correct points of the discussion of each topic.

Again, let us suppose that throughout the country forty classes take Professor M's examination, and the forty teachers of history grade all the examination papers, say 400 to 500. Owing to the diversity of emphasis of factual instruction and relationship of cause and effect of events, the probabilities are that each paper would be graded anywhere from 25 to 96 by the forty teachers according to each one's bias. Thirty-nine teachers might be more critical of the immature, superficial statement of facts and reasons for events. One might overlook these elements.

How then can our schools give a final test as a college entrance examination in which these two factors of pupil superficiality and teacher bias are eliminated, and where the pupils must react to a definitely presented system of facts and judgments of relationship?

The modern objective tests that are being used more and more in the public schools give us a solution to

this problem that may satisfy the objections mentioned above.

Since the college entrance examinations seek to measure the mental qualifications of ninth-grade pupils in eight subjects, the ordinary standard tests in grade school studies may not meet the purposes of the college examiners. It may be necessary to make up new objective tests.

For the individual study of one subject throughout the year, a teacher has to make up his own series of tests and a final test on the whole study.

Rather than discuss the test problem at greater length, it may provoke more constructive criticism to present here a final test in American History as a sample for consideration. The answer key follows so that if any history teachers in the schools for the deaf present this test, they may check the score of correct answers. The following test in American History is based on the 1926 entrance examination given by Gallaudet College.

If any of the schools do give this test, the writer of this paper would be glad to have the teacher in charge communicate with him; giving the total score for each pupil in the class. The instructors also are urged to state their opinions as to whether or not the objective test form has any advantages over the traditional question examination.

If other schools are using objective tests, the writer would like to know. The problem before all of our schools for the deaf is how we may improve our methods of instruction and testing and keep step with the educational movements in the public schools.

Objective Test in American History

Fill in blanks. Underscore which one of several answers you think is the right one. Check (√) *a b c* which answer you think is right.

I. Before the Time of Columbus. (Score 8)

1. Trade between Europe and the Orient had been introduced by the Wars of the ———— in the Holy Land and by the travels of the Venetian trader, ————, in China.

2. The piratical tribes of Turks in Greece about 1450
   a. encouraged trade with the Italians.
   b. allowed the traders to pass through the same as before.
   c. stopped all Oriental trade for many years.

3. The (Underscore one) Spanish—French—Portuguese—English—Dutch had tried for half a century to find
   a. a new land route east to India.
   b. a sea route around Africa to reach India.
   c. a sea route around Europe to the Far East.

4. (Underscore one) Magellan—Drake—Da Gama—Columbus first reached India in 1497.

5. Columbus' idea was to
   a. follow Diaz' route around the Cape of Good Hope to India.
   b. cross the Atlantic along latitude 28.
   c. sail east on the Mediterranean and Red Seas.

6. The new world was so-called from the first name of Cabot—Columbus—Da Gama—Vespucius—Balboa.

II. The Pilgrim Fathers. (Score 9)

1. King James and the English people had a great deal of trouble about
   a. tax laws.
   b. reading the Bible at home.
   c. going to different churches.
   d. trading in India.

2. A thousand English people fled to Holland—France—Germany—where the people were tolerant to Protestants.

3. Later the Pilgrims migrated to America to live under the flag and government of America—France—Spain—England.

4. The Pilgrims signed the Mayflower Compact
   a. to go back to England to live peacefully.
   b. to elect their own officers and obey their laws.
   c. to live with the Dutch in New Amsterdam.

5. Some of the Pilgrim leaders were: John Smith—John Winthrop — Wm. Bradford — Roger Williams — Standish.

6. The three hundredth anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims was celebrated in 1907—1914—1920—1930—1926.

7. A good idea of the life of the Pilgrims can be obtained from the poem Evangeline—Miles Standish—America.

III. Settlers in Massachusetts and Virginia. (Score 14) Mark M or V before these statements. Put nothing before statements about other colonies.

1. The people were lazy, shiftless, poor debtors.
2. The people were younger sons of rich lords in England.
3. The men wanted to get rich quickly and return to England.
4. They were intelligent, hard working, churchgoing men.
5. They built towns and had farms near by.
6. They lived on large plantations miles apart.
7. They ordered public schools in every settlement.
8. They employed private tutors for the children at home.
9. They held frequent meetings to discuss local laws.
10. They elected county officials to enforce local laws.
11. They did all their work themselves.
12. They bought slaves to do their work.
13. They had several wars with the Indians.
14. They had no wars with the Indians at all.
15. The governor was the proprietor of the colony.
16. The governor was elected by the men of the colony.
17. The governor was appointed by the king of England.

IV. The Colonial Governments. (Score 4)

When the English colonists planned to sail to America, each group got a form of government from the king.

1. There were three forms of government.
   a. the ———— colonies where the king appointed the governor.
   b. the ———— colonies where the owners acted as governors.
   c. the ———— colonies where the people elected the governors.
2. The colonial laws were made by (Check one)
   a. the parliament in London.
   b. the king himself.
   c. the governors of each colony.
   d. assemblies elected by the people of each colony.

V. Table of Colonies. (Score 21)

Colonies	*Form of Government*	*People*	*Leader*	*Date*
Virginia	————	————	————	1607
Plymouth	————	————	————	1620
Boston	————	————	————	1630
Maryland	————	————	————	1634
New York	————	————	————	1664
Pennsylvania	————	————	————	1681
Georgia	————	————	————	1733

VI. First Continental Congress. (Score 6)

1. This Congress met in the city of ———— in 1774.
2. There were 55 ———— (men) from all the colonies except Georgia.
3. This Congress favored—opposed tax laws made by Colonial Assemblies because (Check one)
   a. they had never made tax laws before.
   b. Parliament in London had always made the tax laws.
   c. their charters from the kings had given them that right.

4. They agreed to—objected to paying the war tax for the French and Indian War.

5. They agreed to—refused to—help Boston if the British army started a battle there.

VII. State Rights Versus the Union. (Score 11)

1. When the Declaration of Independence was signed (date) ————————, the government consisted of

a. thirteen allied States.

b. one nation.

2. After the Revolution the Congress proposed two plans for a united government.

a. By the Articles of Confederation the United States government could not (Check 3)

(*1*) collect taxes.

(*2*) assemble an army.

(*3*) govern commerce between states.

(*4*) make new roads.

(*5*) sign treaties of peace.

b. By the Constitution the Federal Government could (Check five)

(*1*) make laws to punish all crimes.

(*2*) coin money.

(*3*) tax land and houses.

(*4*) deliver mail.

(*5*) tax import trade.

(*6*) tax liquor.

(*7*) build lighthouses along the coast.

3. The Southern States claimed the right

a. that all the States must remain in the Union.

b. that any State could join the British Empire.

c. that any State could secede from the Union.

VIII. Important Laws and Problems. (Score 10)

1. The Embargo Act

a. warned French warships not to interfere with American trading vessels or America would declare war.

b. ordered all American ships to remain at home.

c. urged American ships to arm themselves as privateers against England.

2. The Monroe Doctrine was a message to Congress

a. just after the French—Texas—South American Revolution. (Underscore)

b. to warn—all European powers—Texas—Tripoli pirates. (Underscore)

(*1*) to let American merchant ships alone.

(*2*) to keep out of the ex-Spanish colonies.

(*3*) to stop their European wars. (Check one)

3. The Civil Service Law was a plan (Check one)

a. to examine all applicants for government employ.

b. to discharge political employees when a new President comes into office.

c. to carry on the Spoils System.

4. The League of Nations is (Check one)

a. a United States of Europe.

b. a treaty of five world powers to dominate the world.

c. a confederation of fifty odd nations to work for the world's welfare.

5. The Underground Railroad was (Check one)

a. the New York City subway lines.

b. a tunnel through the Rocky Mountains.

c. a secret way of carrying slaves north to Canada.

6. The Missouri Compromise was (Check one)

a. an agreement in Congress to admit Maine as a free state and Missouri as a slave state.

b. a plan to split Missouri in two halves.

c. a plan to deepen the Missouri and Ohio Rivers equally.

7. The Philippine Question is about (Check one)

a. admitting the Philippines as the 49th State.

b. taxing Philippine goods in America.

c. giving the Philippines their independence.

8. Disarmament means (Check one)

a. for all the world to destroy all guns and warships.

b. to keep down the peace time expense for new naval ships and guns.

c. to limit the five world powers' armies, air fleets and navies.

IX. Associate these names of people and places with one or more facts. (Put the right numbers before the letters.) (Score 15)

1. Webster	*a.* Wrote the Declaration of Independence.
2. Valley Forge	*b.* Battle ended the Civil War.
3. Robert Morris	*c.* Proposed the League of Nations.
4. Gettysburg	*d.* Battlefield became a War Memorial.
5. Lafayette	*e.* Offered to buy Alaska from Russia.
6. Calhoun	*f.* Battle cost England one-third of the attacking force.
7. Vicksburg	*g.* Doubled the size of the United States.
8. Appomattox	*h.* Was one of the foreign officers fighting for the cause of liberty.
9. Woodrow Wilson	*i.* Helped to finance the Revolutionary War.
10. Seward	*j.* Battle ended on 4th of July, 1863.
11. Bunker Hill	*k.* Advocated slavery and secession.
12. Jefferson	*l.* Tested the patriotism of the Americans by hunger, cold and disease in winter camp.
	m. Was the second victory in the Revolution.
	n. Opposed the right of a State to nullify the laws of Congress.

X. The Revolutionary and Mexican Wars. (Score 6)

1. Cause of the Revolution (Check one)
   a. the slavery problem.
   b. The pirates in Tripoli.
   c. the right of Englishmen to make their own tax laws.
   d. the British impressment of American seamen.
2. The Revolution resulted in (Check 2)
   a. the abolition of slavery.
   b. the end of paying tribute to Tripoli.
   c. the independence of the Englishmen in America.
   d. the British loss of her colonies in North America except Canada and Newfoundland.
3. The Mexican War was caused by
   a. the French trying to dominate Mexico.
   b. the boundary dispute between Texas and Mexico.
   c. the cattle stealing along the boundary line.
4. The results of the Mexican War were
   a. the French left Mexico.
   b. the Mexicans ceded our present Southwest to the United States.
   c. the United States paid Mexico $20,000,000.
   d. the Texas Rangers stopped the cattle rustling.

XI. A. Great Explorers of North America. (Score 14)
(Put the right numbers before the letters.)

1. La Salle	*a.* Explored Colorado and New Mexico in 1803.
2. Boone	*b.* Blazed the trail to Oregon.
3. Coronado	*c.* Explored the Mississippi River.
4. Lewis and Clark	*d.* Searched for the Seven Cities of Gold north of Mexico.
5. Pike	*e.* Opened Kentucky to settlement.
6. Balboa	*f.* Discovered a bay on the north coast.
7. Hudson	*g.* Crossed Panama and saw the Pacific.
8. De Soto	

B. Important Inventions.

1. Whitney	*a.* Utilized rubber commercially.
2. McCormick	*b.* First converted iron to steel.
3. Westinghouse	*c.* Made lights by using electricity.
4. Wright Brothers	*d.* Opened the way for large cotton farming.
5. Goodyear	*e.* Made long distance talking possible.
6. Bell	*f.* Made traveling safe with the air brake.
7. Bessemer	*g.* Increased the grain crop 1,000 per cent by his binder.
8. Edison	
9. Howe	

The above test is based on the examination in the 1925-1926 Gallaudet College catalogue. It would be a fair proposition to give this test a trial next year in a number of schools. The college time limit is three hours. The test can be completed in probably an hour. With the Answer Key the teacher can check quickly and accurately whether or not the pupils obtained the idea of the topics discussed. By referring to the Scores one may observe there are 118 points to be answered. They involve names of persons, places, events; association of persons and incidents; judgment of cause and effect; comparison and contrast in different sections.

This test has tried to give the pupil a more mature basis of thinking and knowledge of facts, and to guard the examiner from passing a pupil on a superficial discussion of the topics called for.

The test has more than 100 points, so, to grade on a percentage basis, divide the number of right answers by the whole number of points.

The Answer Key is as follows:

I. (8 points)
1. Crusades
Marco Polo
2. c
3. Portuguese
4. b
4. Da Gama
5. b
6. Vespucius

II. (9 points)
1. b c
2. Holland
3. England
4. b
5. Wm. Bradford
Standish
6. 1920
7. Miles Standish

III. (14 points)
M—4, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 16
V—2, 6, 8, 10, 12, 13, 17

IV. (4 points)
1. a Royal
b Proprietor
c Charter
2. d

V. (21 points)
Royal English Smith
Charter Pilgrims Bradford
Charter Puritans Winthrop
Proprietor Catholics Baltimore
Royal Dutch Duke of York
Proprietor Quakers Penn
Royal Debtors Oglethorpe

VI. (6 points)
1. Philadelphia
2. representatives
3. favored
c
4. agreed to
5. agreed to

VII. (11 points)
1. July 4, 1776
a
2. a (1) (3) (4)
b (2) (4) (5) (6) (7)
3. c

VIII. (10 points)
1. b
2. a South American
b. European powers
(2)

3. a
4. c
5. c
6. a
7. c
8. b

IX. (15 points)

12. a
8. b
9. c
4. d
10. e
11. f
12. g
5. h
3. i
4, 7. j
6. k
2. l
11. m
1. n

X. (6 points)

1. c
2. c, d
3. b
4. b, c

XI. A. (14 points)

5. a
4. b
1. c
3. d
2. e
7. f
6. g

B 5. a
7. b
8. c
1. d
6. e
3. f
2. g

Total Number of Points=118.

To score the frequencies of errors a tally sheet giving the names of pupils across the top and the numbers of the questions down the side should be prepared. This check will show the teacher which questions were possibly too easy or too difficult or had not been mastered by the pupils.

If a number of our schools would try this test and combine the results of their findings, it would give a surer basis of the value of the test as compared with the old familiar form of examination questions.

Last of all, to get the relative distribution of scores of the pupils, let us break the 118 scores into groups of fives.

Score	Group	Per Cent of Total Number in Each Group	Scores Converted into Percentages
114—118			
109—113	A	6	106=90%
104—108			
99—103	B	25	
94— 98			94=80%
89— 93			
84— 88	C	38	
79— 83			83=70%
74— 78			77=65%
69— 73	D	25	
64— 68			
59— 63			
54— 58	E	6	
49— 53			
44— 48			

In a large number of pupils the scores would probably be about 6 per cent A's, 25 per cent B's, 38 per cent C's, 25 per cent D's, and 6 per cent E's. An equal division of easy, moderately hard and difficult questions would prove a fair examination test. On a passing grade of 65, the teacher need only find 65 per cent of the total number of scores. In this test 65 per cent of 118 gives the score of 77 to pass.

This is a very elementary way of figuring the scores and not very scientific. However, it may give us a working plan of measuring scores in a test.

The main objective is to bring before the teachers of the advanced grades in our schools for the deaf the problem of writing fairer examinations that require from the pupils definite information and judgment of events and relationships. It means more work in making up an objective test, but the extra demand on the pupil to come up to the teacher's plane of thinking more than compensates for it all.

The following is the objective test in English History based on a combination of former college examinations. The plan of constructing the test is the same as that in the American History test. There are eight main headings with subdivisions.

There are 118 score points in all. The pupil's score divided by the total score gives the percentage basis for those who wish it. It takes a score of 77 to get a percentage of 65; a score of 83 to get 70 per cent; a score of 94 to get 80 per cent; a score of 106 to get 90 per cent.

English History

Fill in the blanks. Underline which one of two or three answers seems to you right. Check (√) which statement, *a*, *b*, *c*, is right.

I. The Britons. (Score 10)

1. The Britons 5—10—15—20 centuries ago had a civilization similar to that of the Romans—Greeks—American Indians.

2. They lived by herding sheep—hunting and fishing—farming—sea roving and piracy—manufacturing.

3. They easily gave up to—strongly resisted—the Romans.

4. They fought fiercely against—surrendered to the Saxons.

5. They believed in the Christian—Roman—Druid gods.

6. They belonged to the ———— race, the same as the Germans — Irish — French — Scotch — Welsh — Saxons.

II. England. (Score 14)

1. The modern English are

a. the descendants of the ————, ————, ————, ————, and ————.

b. the children of the Britons only.

2. King Egbert of Wessex—Sussex—Essex—Anglia united the tribes into one kingdom.

3. Christianity was first introduced into England by ———— and forty ———— sent out by the ———— in 597 A. D.

4. The Archbishop of Westminster—York—Canter-

bury became the head official of all the churches in England.

5. The Saxons obtained the names of the big towns—days of the week—months from the names of their gods.

6. The Danes under King ———— succeeded the Saxon rulers.

7. Westminster Abbey was erected by King ————, 5—7—8—10 centuries ago.

III. Leading Men. (Score 34)

1. William the Conqueror was Duke of ———— and King of ————.

2. He built the Parliament Buildings, Westminster Abbey, Tower of London.

3. He called a meeting of 60,000 men at Salisbury Plain to ———— ————to him as feudal lord.

4. The Stuart kings and queens included

———— ———— ————

———— ———— ————

5. The Stuart kings believed in the
   a. absolute right to rule
   b. divine right of kings
   c. constitutional monarchy.

6. King Henry VIII made himself not only head of the government but also head of the ———— in England.

7. To weaken the power of the clergy to oppose him, King Henry VIII confiscated the church (a) ———— (b) ———— and (c) ————.

8. ———— led the Roundhead army against King Charles I.

9. In 1688 the Parliament deposed King ———— and chose ———— and ———— to succeed him.

10. ———— was given the office of Prime Minister by King George I because the king was unable to ————.

11. During Queen Victoria's reign the chief Prime Ministers were

a. ———— who was interested in foreign—home—Scotch—Irish affairs.

b. ———— who was interested in foreign affairs—home—Irish—Scotch affairs.

12. Now ———— is the leader of the Labor Party which has a majority—minority in the House of Commons, so he is ————.

13. The present ruler is King ————.

14. England owes its sea power to ———— and ————who defeated the Spanish Armada in King—Queen ———— time.

15. ————defeated the French fleet at Trafalgar, and headed off ————'s attack on England.

IV. Religion. (Score 10)

1. The Crusades were a revival of religion—war for the Holy Land—a quarrel between the king and clergy.

2. The triangle race for the power of government was between the ————, ———— and ————.

3. Henry II allowed the Pope to give the ———— and ———— as symbols of church authority, but required feudal ———— to ———— for the church lands.

4. The ———— version of the English Bible was finished in 1611.

5. During the reign of William III Parliament passed a law that English rulers must belong to the Presbyterian Church—Methodist Church—Catholic Church—Church of England.

V. Expansion of the Empire. (Score 13)

1. The sun never sets on the British Empire means

a. Great Britain rules all the earth.

b. there are British colonies in every latitude.

c. before the sun sets in one colony it rises on others.

2. King Edward I conquered ———— and gave the people his first baby boy as the ———— of ————.

3. King James I was king of both ———— and ————.

4. George II defeated France and took the colonies of ———— and ————.

5. By the exploration of the Cabots in 1497 England got ————.

6. Capt. Cook discovered ———— and ————.

7. Thanks to the explorations of Livingstone Great Britain claimed ————.

8. Cecil Rhodes' dream of empire gave Great Britain ————.

VI. Government. (Score 16)

1. The British Empire to-day includes
   Great Britain in Europe.
   ———— and ———— in North America.
   ———— in Asia.
   ———— and ———— in Africa.
   ————, ———— and South Pacific Islands.

2. The British Parliament is composed of
   Senate, House of Representatives, House of Lords, House of Commons.

3. The political parties now are called
   Whigs, Republicans, Labor, Democrats, Liberals, Conservatives, Tories.

4. The British Parliament now is made up of members from
   England, Australia, Scotland, United States, Canada, Wales, All Ireland, Ulster, Irish Free State.

5. The Prime Minister is
   a. appointed by the king for an indefinite term of years.
   b. elected by the House of Lords.
   c. the leader of the majority party in the House of Commons.

VII. Wars. (Score 17)

1. The Hundred Years' War was started by King Edward III against France—Spain—Holland—Scotland—Ireland to gain the throne.

2. The Wars of the Roses lasted 30 years between the Dukes of ———— and ————. The last Duke of ———— became Henry VII who married the Princess of ————.

3. The Intercolonial Wars against the Dutch gave England ————.

4. The wars against the French gave England ———— and ———— in North America, ———— in Asia, and ———— in Africa.

5. The Great Civil War 1642-49 was between the royalists under King ———— and the Puritans under ————.

6. The Crimean War was against ———— to keep its merchants ships—warships from getting out of the ———— Sea into the ———— Sea.

7. England got into the World War because of

a. its agreement to help Germany against France.

b. its agreement to aid France and Belgium if they were attacked.

VIII. The Indian Problem. (Score 4)

1. The troubles in India right now are due to

a. the native opposition to the salt tax like the American tea tax.

b. British taxation without Indian representation in the British Parliament.

c. Indian dislike of British rule.

d. Indian opposition to European industrial development in India.

2. India's laws are made by

a. the British Parliament in London.

b. the Indian National Legislature.

3. *a.* India sends half its taxes to the English treasury.

b. India uses all its taxes of $450,000,000 in India itself.

4. Great Britain wants

a. To dominate India for its raw resources.

b. To make India a dominion like Canada and Australia.

c. To make India independent the same as the United States.

The following is the set of Key Answers for the English History test:

I. (10 points)
1. 20
American Indians
2. hunting and fishing
3. strongly resisted
4. surrendered
5. Druid gods
6. Celtic
Irish
Scotch
Welsh

II. (14 points)
1. a Britons
Saxons
Angles
Danes
Normans
2. Wessex
3. Augustine
monks
Pope of Rome
4. Westminster
5. days of the week
6. Canute
7. Edward the Confessor, 10

III. (34 points)
1. Normandy
England
2. Tower of London
3. swear allegiance
4. James I
Charles I
Charles II
James II
Mary
Anne
5. divine right of Kings
6. Church

7. monasteries
   lands
   money, jewelry
8. Cromwell
9. James II
   William
   Mary
10. Walpole
    speak English

11a. Gladstone
     Irish
  b. Disraeli
     foreign
12. MacDonald
    majority
    Prime Minister
13. George V
14. Drake
    Hawkins
    Queen Elizabeth's
15 Nelson
   Napoleon's

IV. (10 points)

1. War for Holy Land
2. King
   Lords
   Clergy
3. ring
   cross
   allegiance
   King
4. King James
5. Church of England

V. (13 points)

1. c
2. Wales
   Prince of Wales
3. England
   Scotland
4. Canada
   Ohio Valley
   India
5. east coast of N. America
6. Australia
   New Zealand
7. east central Africa
8. south Africa

VI. (16 points)

1. Canada
   Newfoundland
   India
   East, South, and West Africa
   Australia
   New Zealand

2. House of Lords
   House of Commons
3. Labor
   Liberals
   Conservatives
4. England
   Scotland
   Wales
   Ulster
5. c

VII. (17 points)

1. France
2. Lancaster
   York
   Lancaster
   York
3. New York
4. Canada
   Ohio Valley
   India
   Cape Colony
5. Charles I
   Cromwell
6. Russia
   warships
   Black
   Mediterranean
7. b

VIII. (4 points)

1. d
2. b
3. b
4. b

Total Number of Points=118.

To get the normal relative distribution of scores of the pupils, it will be necessary to break the 118 score points into groups of fives, 114-118, 109-113, 104-108, and so on down to the lowest score made. In a large number of pupils, say 100 to 400, the percentage rate will be fairly normal, 6 per cent A, 25 per cent B, 38 per cent C, 25 per cent D, 6 per cent E. This would correspond to the relative distribution of scores in the American History Test considered above. If in this large number of pupils the A's and B's have a large percentage of pupils, the test is too easy. If there is a large percentage of pupils in the D's and E's, the test is too hard. In small classes of a dozen or so, this relative distribution does not hold true.

If thiry or forty of the schools for the deaf would try these objective tests and the scores made by all the pupils were sent to the writer, the latter would report the findings later through the ANNALS. These tests can be hectographed, or written on the wall slate to be copied and marked. The hectographed copy is the better plan. Of course the teacher must see that the pupils understand what to do—to fill in the blanks with the proper answer, to underline which of two, three or four answers is the right one, and to check the right answer given in *a*, *b* and *c*.

The writer hopes these tests will start others to studying this problem. These tests are just a beginning; they require reconstruction by further study. The desire is to get others at work on objective tests, not only in history but also in the other subjects for the college entrance examinations. Let us all cooperate and, regardless of our present opinions, give it a trial. Only by experimenting can we advance.

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INTELLIGENCE OF DEAF CHILDREN AS MEASURED BY DRAWINGS

Recent developments in educational methods have led to the establishment of many tests purporting to measure intelligence. Among the deaf these have been limited in number. There is, however, a question whether the educational retardation of deaf children is due entirely to a lack of native intelligence. The purpose of this study is an attempt to contribute toward the answer and provide additional information for further researches. The final solution of this problem will aid in determining the extent and scope of the education of this class of handicapped persons.

Adequate comparisons between hearing and deaf children have been difficult since intelligence tests suitable to both groups have not been available in sufficient numbers to warrant valid conclusions.

The history of the measurement of intelligence reveals the extreme difficulty of formulating reliable methods of measurement. Most of the attempts along this line made use of non-language, performance, and educational progress tests. Binet was the first to obtain results which were to any extent reliable. The success of his methods led to the more rapid developing of testing material. Nevertheless, tests of this nature cannot well be used with any degree of success among deaf pupils.

The first tests for the deaf were not made until a few years prior to 1920. This work was done by Pintner who developed a group of non-language tests designed expressly for use with the deaf. These were standardized with deaf and hearing children above the 8-year level. The results obtained from this standardization led to the first establishment of adequate norms based on a combined study. In 1924 and 1925 a committee of the National Research Council undertook, among other things, to measure the intelligence of deaf children in a survey of American schools for the deaf. The logical choice for this purpose was the Pintner Non-Language Test. The committee felt it was impossible to use this test with immature children; therefore no children below 12 years of age were included in the study.

A more recent development suitable for use among the deaf is the Goodenough Intelligence Test. Because it makes use of a drawing of the human figure, it is accordingly non-verbal; consequently its adaptability for the deaf led to its choice for this study.

The controversy that exists among psychologists as to the nature of intelligence has made the problem of any mental testing a difficult and arbitrary one. In order

to alleviate the difficulty somewhat, Thorndike has made the following classification of types of intelligence:

1. Abstract intelligence
   The ability to react to symbols, whether numbers, words, forms or diagrams.
2. Mechanical intelligence
   The ability to handle concrete things.
3. Social intelligence
   The understanding of men and women and the ability to react adequately to social institutions.

Tests now existing generally fall within one of these groups. Examiners often specify the type of intelligence they are measuring by referring to one of the classifications enumerated above. The Goodenough Test does not fall completely within any one of these categories, but adds a creative element to the response which is not found in any one of the classes named above, but which may be said to include aspects of all three.

Pintner believes "non-language tests do not correlate very highly with verbal tests. They are testing a different aspect of intelligence and one that should not be neglected."[1] Attempts at reaching the intelligence of deaf children, particularly at an early age, must of necessity make use of a non-language test.

The tests designed by Pintner for measuring intelligence are divided among 5 types:

1. Imitation Test.
2. Easy Learning Test.
3. More Difficult Learning Test.
4. Drawing Completion Test.
5. Picture Reconstruction Test.

These naturally fall into three classes; namely: imitation, learning, and drawing completion. None of the drawing tests call for a creative response on the part of the pupil, but rather for a reproduction of forms presented or for a supplying of missing parts.

The Goodenough Intelligence Test gives no suggestion

[1] Pintner, R., "Results Obtained with the Non-Language Group Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, November, 1924, p. 483.

whatever to the pupil as to what should be included, or the type of drawing to be made. The originality of the individual is called into play at all stages of the response. It is almost a universal trait for children to represent the human figure in drawings at an early age; therefore, it would seem that a response probably indicative of the child's intelligence could be obtained more accurately. The unlimited variation possible in representing the human figure probably makes the test very desirable for deaf children. Granting equal intelligence, the drawing of a deaf child should compare favorably with that of a hearing child, exclusive of educational or language influence.

The test under consideration was standardized in 1926 by Dr. Florence L. Goodenough, at present research assistant professor, Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota. The test can be briefly characterized as follows:

1. It utilizes nothing but a child's single drawing of a man.

2. It is accordingly non-verbal.

3. It requires no more than 10 minutes for testing an entire class, plus about 2 minutes per child for scoring.

4. It is useful chiefly with children from mental age 4 to mental age 10.

5. The reliability for a single unselected group lies between .80 and .90.

6. For separate age-groups in the same range it yields an average correlation of .76 with the Stanford Revision of the Binet Scale.[2] Drawings from 3,593 children ranging in age from 4 to 10 were used in the final standardization.

In the scoring of drawings of the human figure, 51 points are used as a basis. It is distinctly not a test

[2] Goodenough, F. L., "Measurement of Intelligence by Drawings," page x, Editor's Introduction.

of artistic ability, but rather an inclusion of important details such as proportion, coordination and completeness. The administering of the test requires generally no more than 15 minutes, often less than 5 minutes. Pupils receive no advance instruction but are given the directions as follows:

"On these papers I want you to make a picture of a man. Make the very best picture that you can. Take your time and work very carefully. I want to see whether the boys and girls in ———— school can do as well as those in other schools. Try very hard and see what good pictures you can make."[3]

A regular form is provided on the reverse of which is space for name, age, score, teacher's estimate of intelligence, and IQ (Intelligence Quotient). The mental ages are obtained by reference to the standardized table. The IQ is found by dividing the mental age by the chronological age. Chronological ages above 13 years are not considered because of the possible influence of artistic ability and also because the element of self criticism is more likely to exercise a detrimental effect upon the drawing.

The proportionately small number of children who are deaf naturally necessitates the centralization of educational institutions. Therefore the pupils of a state school for the deaf represent a wide geographical area. The schools selected for the present study include a variety of types. They are listed below, together with the number of pupils in each school who were given the test:

The Hayne School for the Deaf, Philadelphia..... 34
Home for the Traning in Speech of Deaf Children Before They Are of School Age, Philadelphia.... 38
The Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia.

[3] Goodenough, F. L., "Measurement of Intelligence by Drawings," page 85.

Cresheim Hall (Primary Department)..... 151
Wingohocking Hall (Intermediate)..... 178
West Virginia State School for the Deaf, Romney, West Virginia 65

A total of 466 pupils ranging in age from 4 years 9 months to 21 years 8 months were given the test.

Because of a deficiency in language ability among the deaf the instructions suggested by Dr. Goodenough were simplified. This was done to eliminate any misunderstanding that might confuse the pupils as to the requirements of the test and thereby lessen the possibility of the best representation of their ability. The command was given orally, and also was written on the blackboard.

"Draw a man."

In cases where the language of children was so limited that the command was not understood either from writing or from the lips, a figure of a man was shown to convey the idea. While some of these drawings clearly indicated understanding of the directions, they were not included in the final tabulation. A teacher's estimate of intelligence was obtained for each individual.

Attention is called to Dr. Goodenough's caution that the examiner should not lose sight of the fact that "it is essential for the validity of the test that each child make the best effort of which he is capable."[4] It was thought inadvisable in testing the deaf to specify the need for putting forth their best efforts because of the difficulty of conveying the exact meaning of terms. This is supported by Day, Fusfeld and Pintner: "There seems to be a lack of what Binet calls auto-criticism. The deaf child seems less critical of his responses, as compared with the hearing child."[5] Examples showing misconcep-

[4] Goodenough, F. L., "Measurement of Intelligence by Drawings," p. 86.

[5] Day, Fusfeld and Pintner, "A Survey of American Schools for the Deaf," p. 286.

tions of language may be seen in the following question and answers:

"Name two reasons why cities usually grow up at falls in rivers?" Answers: "Autumn." "Ural Mountains and Ural river." "The brother and living." "No." "Boys."

After becoming thoroughly familiar with the directions for scoring as outlined by the author, the investigators obtained considerable practice from specimen drawings included in the text. The scoring key was carefully studied to eliminate any discrepancies. In addition, 175 drawings of the human figure were obtained from deaf children of all ages. These specimens were scored individually as a further means of orientation in the proper method of scoring. Questions arising from this practice were discussed and clarified by checking with the scoring scale and specimen drawings. These tests and scores were not included in the final results, nor were the same children re-tested.

With this preliminary experience the scoring of the drawings obtained from the various schools was begun. Prior to separate scoring, a number of these drawings were discussed to further eliminate possibilities of differences. The remaining tests were then rated individually with constant reference to the text. Where any doubt arose from any point, the matter was discussed jointly by the writers before a final decision was made. When the individual scoring was completed a careful checking of all the drawings was made jointly. Special emphasis was placed upon those points in the scale which are more or less subjective and those which presented difficulty in determining just what was intended by the child. The final conclusions were deduced from a total of 330 drawings of deaf children below 13 years and 6 months of age.

The mental ages were obtained from tables prepared by the author. The IQ's were determined according to

the process mentioned above. This information was collected in tabular form together with the teacher's estimate of intelligence, age, sex, and grade of each pupil. The work was simplified and inaccuracies avoided by the use of tables devised for this purpose. Tabular forms were prepared to list information on the following points: Distribution of schools by IQ's; by sex; by age; and by teacher's estimate of intelligence. Provision was also made for summarization of this information. In tabulation each age level includes persons within 6 months of the age indicated. To make the comparisons more uniform the IQ's were reduced to per cents. The mean, median and mode, as well as range of IQ's, were reduced to per cents.

Table I shows the distribution of the IQ's obtained in the test by individual schools.

TABLE I
Distribution of IQ's by Schools
(In Per Cents)

IQ	Schools					
	A	B	C	D	E	Total
160	.....	.....	2.94	.....	.....	.30
150	.....	.....	.....	.90	.....	.30
140	.....	.....	.....	.90	.....	.30
130	.....	.....	2.94	1.81	.....	.90
120	.....	3.23	.....	1.81	.....	1.21
110	4.65	1.61	5.88	8.18	5.26	5.45
100	25.58	6.45	8.82	12.72	15.78	14.84
90	20.93	3.23	17.64	25.45	18.42	17.87
80	20.93	9.67	17.64	11.81	26.31	16.36
70	10.46	27.41	20.58	12.72	23.68	16.96
60	11.62	16.12	11.76	14.54	10.52	13.63
50	5.81	22.58	11.76	5.45	.....	8.78
40	.....	9.67	.....	2.72	.....	2.72
30	.....	.....	.....	.90	.....	.30
Totals	99.98	99.97	99.96	99.91	99.97	99.92

Table II shows the range of IQ's, mean, median and mode.

TABLE II
Comparison of Scores by Schools
(In Per Cents)

School	Mean	Median	Mode	Range of IQ's
A	83.5	90	100	50-110
B	70.8	70	70	40-120
C	81.2	80	70	50-160
D	81.3	80	90	30-150
E	79.5	80	80	60-110
Average	79.5	80	90	30-160

The total distribution of IQ's compared to the normal curve for hearing children is shown in Figure 1.

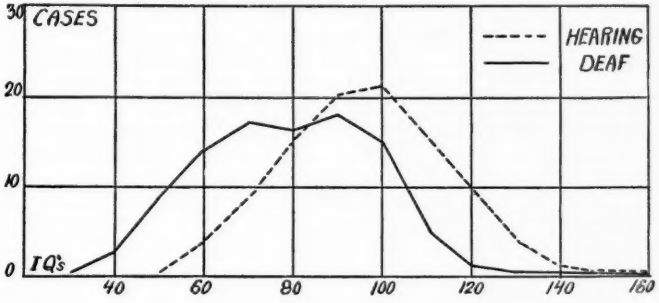

FIGURE 1
Distribution of IQ's in Per Cent
(Deaf, 330 Cases; Hearing, 1,671 Cases)

Table III shows a distribution of IQ's compared with the teachers' estimate of intelligence.

TABLE III
Teachers' Estimate of Intelligence
Distributed According to IQ's

	160	150	140	130	120	110	100	90	80	70	60	50	40	30	Total
Very Superior	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	2	....	....	....	1	....	5
Superior	1	1	....	2	....	4	5	11	10	11	4	4	1	....	54
Average	....	....	1	....	4	9	37	36	32	30	19	10	1	1	180
Inferior	....	....	....	....	....	5	7	11	7	13	20	11	5	....	79
Very Inferior	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	1	2	2	1	4	1	....	12
Totals	1	1	1	3	4	18	49	61	53	56	44	29	9	1	330

Table IV shows the relation between Terman's classification and that of hearing children and of deaf groups.

TABLE IV
Classification of Deaf and Hearing According to Terman's Distribution of IQ's (in Per Cents)

IQ	Deaf	Hearing	Rating
Above 140	.90	2.03	Genius
120-139	2.12	13.94	Very Superior
110-119	5.45	14.90	Superior
90-109	32.72	40.69	Average
80-89	16.36	15.32	Dull
70-79	16.96	8.91	Border Line
Below 70	25.45	4.12	Feeble-minded
Totals	99.96	99.91	

In Table V the distribution of IQ's by sexes is indicated in per cent.

TABLE V
Distribution of IQ's by Sexes (In Per Cents)

IQ	Male	Female	Total
160	.....	.7	.3
150	.5	.....	.3
140	.5	.....	.3
130	1.1	.7	.9
120	.5	2.1	1.2
110	6.5	4.2	5.4
100	16.1	13.1	14.8
90	16.7	19.3	17.8
80	17.7	14.6	16.3
70	14.5	20.1	16.9
60	11.8	16.0	13.6
50	10.2	7.1	8.7
40	3.2	2.0	2.7
30	.5	.....	.3
Totals	99.8	99.9	99.5

Table VI represents distribution of teachers' estimates of intelligence in per cent.

TABLE VI
Distribution of Estimates of Intelligence (In Per Cent)

Classification	Per Cent
Very Superior	1.51
Superior	16.36
Average	54.54
Inferior	23.93
Very Inferior	3.63
Total	99.97

Figure 2 is a graphical representation of distribution of IQ's by sexes.

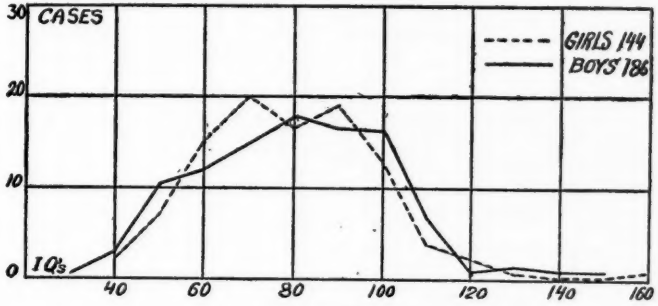

FIGURE 2
Distribution of IQ's in Per Cent

The relation between hearing and deaf groups is shown by superimposing one upon the other in Figure 3.

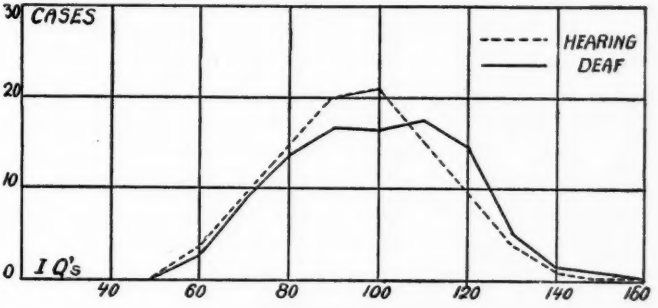

FIGURE 3
Curve of Deaf Group Superimposed Upon That of Hearing Pupils (Twenty-Point Advantage in Per Cent)

In considering the results of these tests it must be borne in mind that the attempt has been made to measure as far as possible native intelligence and not educational attainment. A main purpose of this test has been to determine whether the apparent and admitted educational retardation of deaf children is due in any part to a lack

of native intelligence or to other causes. When this test was chosen as the best available means of measuring the intelligence of deaf children, its non-verbal character was a most important factor in determining its selection. A satisfactory completion of the drawing was not all dependent upon educational progress or affected by artistic ability. Since this is true, the intelligence ratings as found here may be compared with the ratings of the Binet-Simon, Pintner, and Goodenough tests of hearing children. The advantages of this test are that it can be given to very young deaf children; that the distribution of IQ's can be readily compared; and that a more accurate estimation of intelligence of the deaf as compared with the hearing can be made. It has been difficult to reach deaf children under 12 years of age with tests formulated for hearing children. The tabulation in Table I covers the normal distribution of IQ's over 10-point levels. The distribution of IQ's of individual schools was found to follow generally the total distribution curve while the percentage at each age level varied to a greater extent. The highest per cent clustering at any one level was 27 per cent of the pupils of one school with an IQ of 100. The greatest percentage scoring above 100 in any one school was 11, at the 110 IQ level. The highest percentage below an IQ of 100 was found to be 26 at 90 and 26 at 70 for another school. In the grand totals the highest percentage was found at the 90 IQ level. This was 18 per cent. The highest under 90 was 17 per cent at the 70 IQ level and the highest above 90 was 15 per cent at the 100 IQ level. This unusually high percentage found below 100 IQ is not compensated by an equally high percentage above 100. This, of course, is not a completely normal distribution. It is impossible to determine just which factors influence this distribution to the greatest extent. It may be due to a percentage of mental defectives who are unknowingly placed in schools for the deaf. The inefficiency of our testing devices for deaf

children may contribute to this condition. Like differences in mentality of deaf children in various other schools have been noted by Day, Fusfeld and Pintner in their Survey of American Schools for the Deaf: "There are obviously large differences in the general mental make-up of the children attending different schools. Between a school having an average mental index between 50 and 60, and a school having an average index between 30 and 40 there is a large difference."[6] The formulation of additional intelligence tests for the deaf will undoubtedly contribute toward eliminating the sub-normal element.

The range of IQ's extends from 30 to 160, with distributions varying approximately proportionately at all points in the scale. The greatest variation here is 20 points below that of hearing children while the highest IQ recorded in this study is 10 points below the highest IQ of 1,671 hearing children. The range of IQ's of deaf children is 30 points less than the range for hearing children.

The mode of the individual schools reached a low point of 70 in two cases, and a high level of 100 in another instance. Two other schools scored 80, 90, respectively. The modal IQ of all schools taken as a whole was 90. This level, which is 10 points below normal, follows the tendency of a 20-point divergence from the normal, evidenced in the entire distribution.

The schools scoring high or low in the modal distribution show a corresponding rating on the median, having a low point of 70 and a high point of 90. The median of the entire group shows an IQ of 80 or above with one exception.

The average IQ's of the several schools vary only two points from a constant figure. The school showing a low median and modal score shows a consistently low

[6] Day, Fusfeld and Pintner, "A Survey of American Schools for the Deaf," p. 262.

mean of 70.8 per cent. The average of the entire group, however, is 79.5 per cent.

By using Terman's classification of IQ's, it is possible to compare the hearing group with the deaf group to determine further the extent of retardation. (Table IV.) It may be observed that the proportions of groups classified as average, dull, and genius approximate those of the hearing group. The per cent of the deaf classified as very superior and superior fell below the corresponding groups of the hearing. Among the deaf, also, there was indicated a higher percentage of the border-line and feeble-minded groups.

A comparison of hearing children with the deaf in percentage is shown in Figure 1. It will be noted that a greater per cent of deaf children are grouped at the lower end of the scale; there is a slight decline toward the modal group in the curve of the deaf, followed by a gradual descent in the scale. Near the upper limits of the graph correlation is more uniform. To make differences more comparable and to determine approximate likenesses of the two groups, the curve of the deaf group was superimposed upon that of the hearing children. (Figure 3.) This necessitated a shifting of the entire curve 20 points on the scale. This might indicate that the deaf child is about 20 points retarded in comparison with the hearing child. The mode has been found to show only a 10-point variation; also the median and mean indicate similar differences of 10 points. It may be observed that the lower range begins at a level 20 points below that of the hearing range. If the mean, median, and range were advanced 20 points on the scale of IQ's, the two curves would almost coincide. (Figure 3.)

In the report made by Day, Fusfeld and Pintner for the National Research Council, the deaf children were found to be retarded. The difference amounted to 60 points on the Pintner Scale. This was a comparison of older children, ranging in age from 12 to 15 years in-

clusive, and covering 2,423 deaf and 4,476 hearing pupils who were given the Pintner Non-Language Test.[7] Since on Pintner's scale the median score is 300, this difference of 60 points may be said to equal 20 points on the Goodenough scale which is based on a median of 100.

Reamer finds the average difference in mental ability between the hearing and deaf child to be about 2 years.[8] Day, Fusfeld and Pintner also find a distinct superiority of the hearing in a comparison of intelligence ratings of the deaf and hearing between the ages of 12 and 15.[9] If this 20-point retardation which is continuous throughout the entire scale be considered in terms of years, we find the retardation of deaf children to range from 1 year at age 5, to 2 years 7 months at age 13. The average for the span of years from 5 to 13 is 1 year and 10 months. It is significant to note that in a study made by Reamer using the Pintner Non-Language Tests, the same average difference was found between deaf and hearing children. The study by Reamer covered chronological ages from 8 to 21. It was based on a study of 2,172 pupils. A gradual increase in retardation accompanying the advancing age of the pupils has been noted. This is substantiated in a study by Pintner among the deaf and hearing. It is not unusual since in studies of intelligence it has been found that retardation at an early age becomes more marked at a higher age level.

Previous researches among the deaf, and census reports show that there is a greater number of males than females in the deaf population. This has been supported by other investigators, namely, Peet, Love, and Fusfeld. According to the findings of the committee of the National Research Council survey, 53.8 per cent of the pupils in

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[7] Day, Fusfeld and Pintner, "A Survey of American Schools for the Deaf," p. 273.

[8] Reamer, J. C., "Mental and Educational Measurements of the Deaf," p. 130.

[9] Day, Fusfeld and Pintner, "A Survey of American Schools for the Deaf," p. 288.

schools for the deaf are boys while the per cent of girls totals 46.2. This was based on records from 4,006 pupils. In the present study the percentage of boys and girls approximates that of the survey, there being 56.4 per cent boys and 43.6 per cent girls. The per cent of difference in favor of males in various studies ranks as follows:

Fusfeld	21.5 per cent more males
Love	20. per cent more males
Reamer	17.7 per cent more males
Day, Fusfeld and Pintner	7.6 per cent more males
This study	13.8 per cent more males

In intelligence, marked differences have been noted by several investigators, especially by Kerschensteiner, who reports that the girls exceed the boys in all types of drawings except certain kinds of decorative design. The difference noted by Goodenough was of a qualitative nature, the girls being slightly better than the boys. Sex differences in this study present no great variation, as may be observed in Table V and Figure 2. Due possibly to the limited number of cases studied, the differences between the sexes were insufficient to warrant any definite conclusions.

In securing the teachers' estimate of intelligence no criterion was used. The judgments were distributed by the teachers according to the following classification: Very superior; superior; average; inferior; and very inferior. In Tables III and VI the numbers at each level are arranged according to the IQ ratings obtained. A very low correlation between the actual IQ's obtained and the teachers' estimate of intelligence was observed, corresponding with the findings of Goodenough who says, "The correlation with teachers' judgments of ability was found to be .444 within the first three grades; but in grades above the third, the correlation with teachers' judgments was too low to be significant."[10] The per cent

[10] Goodenough, F. L., "Measurement of Intelligence by Drawings," p. 82.

of pupils falling within each level of estimation follows approximately the variation of a normal curve. (Table VI.)

The results of this investigation are corroborated by the findings of Pintner, Reamer, and Day, Fusfeld and Pintner. This supports the contention that the educational retardation of deaf children is due not altogether to a lack of native intelligence. The comparatively small amount of mental retardation, however, clearly demonstrates that there must be other causes contributing to this condition. Some of these may be a delay in beginning education, unsuitable methods of instruction, and inability of the pupils to assimilate language readily. The further standardization of this test upon a larger group of deaf pupils would contribute toward supplying a long felt need for suitable measures of intelligence.

SUMMARY

1. The Goodenough Intelligence Test was given to pupils in five schools for the deaf varying in character and methods of instruction.

2. The children tested represent several types of schools comprising 466 pupils, of which 330 ranging in age from 5 to 14 years of age were included in this study.

3. Graphs and tables showing comparisons between deaf and hearing children were prepared.

4. The curve of distribution does not follow the normal curve for hearing children. A greater number are clustered at the lower portion of the curve. There is a normal decline at the upper portion of the scale.

5. Thirty-three per cent of the pupils tested appear at the average level of intelligence which compares with 41 per cent of hearing children grouped at the same level.

6. There was a wide difference in the intelligence ratings of children from the various schools.

7. The average degree of retardation of deaf children was found to be one year and 10 months. This degree of divergence between hearing and deaf children is corroborated by previous studies.

8. Retardation ranged from 1 year at age 5, to 2 years and 7 months at age 13, increasing proportionately according to the advancing age of the children.

9. The modal IQ was found to be 90; median 80; and average 79.5.

10. Numerically the males exceeded the females by 13.8 per cent.

11. Differences in intelligence according to sex is practically negligible.

12. The marked differences between the deaf and the hearing child are found to be due not entirely to a lack of native intelligence.

13. The teachers' estimate of intelligence yields a low correlation with IQ's obtained.

14. Lack of sufficient numbers of pupils at each age level prevents adequate treatment by ages.

15. The non-language aspect and creative demand of the Goodenough Intelligence Test would seem to make it well adapted to the testing of deaf children.

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Philadelphia, Pa.

OUTLINE OF LANGUAGE FOR DEAF CHILDREN

In reviewing a book so full of valuable suggestions as that entitled "Outline of Language for Deaf Children with Notes on the Presentation of the Work of the Fifth and Sixth Years," by Miss Edith M. Buell, assistant principal in the Lexington Avenue School, the chief problem is what to leave out, for the book is valuable from cover to cover. One has only to remember Miss Buell's Outline of Language for Deaf Children covering the first four years of their school life, in order to look forward with interest to the reading of this outline of work for the fifth and sixth years.

The inexperienced teacher needs just such a guide, and the experienced teacher will welcome material that Miss Buell has put down in permanent form, arranged in logical manner and orderly sequence.

Miss Buell pertinently says the "General aims of language teaching are threefold: First, to develop the mind of the child through language; second, to develop in each child the ability to comprehend and enjoy written English; third, to develop in each child the ability to express himself clearly and correctly." She also says that in order to obtain the best results from the pupil, the *teacher* must have in mind definite aims as to what the child must accomplish by the end of the year. To my mind nothing that Miss Buell brings out is more important than this point. "If a man knoweth not for what port he is steering, no wind is favorable to him." The definite aims which Miss Buell suggests, are first, Knowledge; second, Abilities and Habits; third, Attitudes. Each of these aims is definitely outlined, with suggestions on how they may be attained.

Throughout the outline, Miss Buell insists upon the use of natural language at all times. She emphasizes this idea by saying that the hearing child did not wait until he was ten or eleven years old before he heard the per-

fect or past tense. She largely lays the blame for so many so-called "deaf-mutisms" upon the teacher who fails to give the child the natural language used by hearing people. Miss Buell stresses the fact that work must be varied in order to keep the interest of the child. She reminds us that as hearing children must be taught to organize their work in order to secure unity, why should we expect the deaf child to organize his work without instruction? She says "that letters and notes will be about the only form of written work that the children will use after leaving school." And she urges that every possible occasion be utilized for writing a note or a letter. "The lack of ability of children to follow written directions," Miss Buell says, "is partly due to the fact that the teachers do not realize how much help they give the children, and how little really independent work the children do."

Throughout the book, concrete suggestions are given as to how to correct the faults most common in the written and spoken language of deaf children of the fifth and sixth grades.

If there are gaps in the language achievement of deaf children, it is to such outlines as these prepared by Miss Buell that we may turn for the right kind of aid.

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REVIEW OF THE L. P. F.
1929-1930

The Little Paper Family, popularly known as the L. P. F., has attained a recognized standing as a potent force in shaping opinion insofar as it affects our schools for the deaf. With its interchange of views, it has become an institution in itself, serving both as a forum and

as a storehouse of great value. Each school that maintains a paper meets a need of its own and at the same time adds its influence to the general current of professional interest.

There is no denying the fact that the various school papers have in recent years shown a great advance in the form in which they are issued, in the printing workmanship, and in the earnestness of their discussions of problems common to all the schools. The standard is indeed high. It is no wonder, then, that an alert school journal has come to be the mark of a progressive school.

As the preceding school year, that for 1929-1930, was particularly noteworthy for the many contributions of value in the L. P. F., it was the feeling of the editor of the ANNALS that it would serve a good purpose to bring together by way of review some of the striking discussions on questions of special moment. The limitations of space here alone restrict the number of excerpts chosen.

The keynote for a purposeful year may be found in these earnest words from the pen of Supt. E. S. Tillinghast of the South Dakota School, in the *South Dakota Advocate* for October, 1929, the theme being "Basic Principles of Cooperative School Organization:"

> The school exists for the children, not for anyone else. Every waking hour of a child's time in and out of the schoolroom has great and endlessly varied potential educational value. Every person when coming in contact with children is a potential teacher, more or less helpful. All should be cooperators in this work. Play may be just as educative as work. Language or speech outside the schoolroom is just as valuable and vital to success as language and speech in the classroom. Therefore, tremendous possibilities of progress lie in the constant and thoughtful cooperation of all, continually analyzing and utilizing the great educational opportunities which present themselves, at play, by handwork, such as present themselves in all our contacts with the children. In these contacts we should always remember the great trinity of training, the head, the hand, and the heart—mind, body, and spirit—thus developing many-sided healthful interests and corresponding useful skills, all to the supreme end of worth-while life service. Keep vividly in mind the importance of teaching language, spoken, spelled, or written, at all times, everywhere.

Occasionally we are reminded that the finer sentiments

are not wanting in the teacher's perspective of the work at hand. A striking instance is this poem by Mr. W. T. Griffing of the Oklahoma School, printed in the *Deaf Oklahoman*, October 24, 1929.

MY SCHOOLROOM

Dear God, to-day my schoolroom door is open wide,
And my pupils, born of silence, are grouped inside;
Their childish faith looks up to me for help, and I,
Can do no more than smile at them and try,
To work and play with them, to set their souls afire,
To lead and push them on, till they desire
To conquer lessons, then later on face life
Glad and eager, unafraid of worldly strife.

And, Father, I know and feel that they
Make much, think much, of things I do and say,
So my heart is humble when I turn to You
To ask for words and deeds, both fine and true.
'Tis hard to work with them, when the song of the bird
Falls on their ears unheeded and unheard;
It is for me to try to keep alive
That glorious laughter found in the eyes!

Dear God, to-day my schoolroom door is open wide,
And I feel that You are with us there—inside!

In the spirit of one who fully appreciates the magnitude of the task before the teacher, Mr. E. A. Stevenson, principal of the California School, in the *California News* for December, 1929, discusses the far-reaching importance of the time element in the education of deaf children.

Those of us, whose mission it is to educate and enlighten the deaf child should fully realize and appreciate the importance of time in our daily routine. Yet, as one observes the work of the average teacher of the deaf, either in the classroom or in the shop, one cannot help but feel that valuable time is lost, yes, even wasted, both on the part of the teacher and that of the students. When a teacher comes to the classroom unprepared for the day's task, she is surely robbing the deaf child of one of his most vital means of obtaining an education. When she carries on her work by means of stereotyped drills and forms which have no practical and lasting value in the way of mental development and growth of the child in his ever uphill struggle, she is again taking away from him, consciously or unconsciously, one of his most serious assets. Each teacher of the deaf should at all times keep in mind the value of time in the educational life of the child and carry on her teaching accordingly. The teacher who gives time its proper place and importance in the general scheme of teaching, readily and very clearly indicates its value by the results and progress attained by her pupils. Furthermore, the average deaf pupil accepts the teacher's

evaluation of the element of time and reacts accordingly. This attitude of the child adds to the seriousness of the matter. In fact, it is one of the factors that cause the deaf boy to have difficulty in holding down his first job upon leaving school. Time, apparently, in the accomplishment of his daily tasks means nothing to him and he is somewhat puzzled to think that it does mean everything to his employer. Having lost two or three jobs, the deaf boy is soon brought to a sad awakening. He must now break a very bad habit—one that has been of long standing—in order to keep pace with his fellow workers.

Teachers will easily realize what is intended in the preceding paragraph. If they cannot and are not touched by the plea, they should not seek to earn their living at the sacrifice and expense of the deaf child. There are other lines of endeavor in which the value of time is not estimated in terms of human lives and happiness of already handicapped children.

Get the "time habit." Do your work *in time* and *on time* and not *for time.* Make "time" your byword and motto. Inculcate in your pupils the habit of considering time at all times. Do not allow a boy to take his own time in getting to his desk or bench to begin his day's assignment. Do not give a child all day to accomplish a lesson that should be done in an hour. Give time limits to your daily lessons, tests, and assignments. Consider the element of time as part of your marking or grading. This applies to the shop as well as to the classroom. Time your assignments of jobs in printing, in cabinetmaking, and in all shops. Be fair in your estimate of time necessary to complete a given task and mark the work accordingly. Do this conscientiously and religiously and watch the amazing and satisfying results. Naturally, this means you will have to step more quickly, but just think what you are doing for the habit formation and for the future of your deaf boys and girls. Your conscience will be lighter, your work brighter, and above all, your children happier and better.

The part the teacher should play in the school organization is outlined in a most able paper that appeared in a number of the school journals. We regret that we have been unable to determine the name of the writer. The background of the discussion is provided by the title, "Are You a Good Teacher?"—a query that should furnish food for serious thought.

It is the ambition of most teachers of the deaf to make the institution in which they are employed the best, or among the best, of any in the country. Many of them, however, do not take the personal responsibility necessary to reach this end. They are glad and proud to know that their school is a good one, but do not realize that it is up to them to make it better. Often teachers depend too much upon the vigorous and progressive attitude of the superintendent to keep a high tone in the school. They are always willing and anxious to do his bidding and adopt his suggestions, but do not take the initiative as they should. A superintendent can do much to raise the standard of his school. How much more

can be accomplished if he be supported by a corps of teachers who uphold him in every way, and who have ideas and suggestions of their own to offer as well as to receive. Is there any reason why the teacher's idea with reference to his work should not be as good as that of the superintendent? It might be better, and at any rate nothing is lost by advancing it.

The position of superintendent in a school for the deaf is a trying one. Some teachers do not realize that he is expected to know a little of everything—from manual labor on the farm to the highest branches of the educational work in his institution—and to keep in close touch with the same from day to day. These, with a thousand little details, make his daily routine none too easy. He, therefore, appreciates the teacher who is fitted to take up his work and carry it successfully along in a manner for the best advancement of his class and the school.

Loyalty to the superintendent and the school is a point to be considered first. No institution can long show the proper advancement if the teachers are not in thorough harmony with the superintendent. They should be ready to uphold his policy at all times and to support him in disciplinary measures. There are teachers, too, who have been known to circulate stories concerning the school or its management which were by no means to the best interests of the institution. Teachers sometimes are not loyal to each other. For instance, John is given a low mark by his teacher and because of this goes to another teacher with his tale of woe; he is consoled, petted, and told that it is a pity. This has a demoralizing effect upon the entire school and the teacher who thus condones this action of a pupil is doing a great wrong.

There are those who, when their work is over in the afternoon, have no further interest in the doings of the school until their work begins again.

These teachers are not doing all they can for the school, for they should take active interest in the social life of the pupils as well as in their outdoor and indoor games and sports. Pupils very much appreciate the presence of the teachers at their parties and societies. Teachers can render assistance and give suggestions which are of much value. Simple rules of etiquette may be easily taught and certain little acts of rudeness corrected in an effective manner and the standard of deportment raised by the teachers who are best fitted to observe and correct these things.

A point of which note should be taken is the proper dignity which a teacher ought to maintain at all times in his intercourse with the pupils. No doubt it has been observed that a few teachers are somewhat prone to become too familiar or to hobnob with the boys and girls. He feels that, in order to be upon the best of terms with students, to be liked, or to gain their favor, he must be a good fellow, and in so doing sacrifices his dignity and a great deal is lost and nothing gained. It must not be thought that the teacher most liked by the students is always the best teacher, for that is a mistake. The teacher who is able to maintain a dignified bearing, but at the same time be able to join with the students in a social way, also in their sport, and to make them feel that he is deeply interested in them, is going to bring about the best results.

Superintendents or principals are often annoyed by being called

upon by the teacher to straighten out a refractory pupil. This calling for assistance is a confession of weakness and the good teacher seldom resorts to such a measure. To be able to keep the proper discipline in one's class is the first essential of the teacher, and if he does not possess it and cannot attain it, trouble will follow and failure will result in the end. Some teachers are actually at war with their classes or with some members or member of the same, and when the pupils are likely to gain the day, the superintendent is brought in to save it. The teacher should be able to control any and all students who may come under his instruction without the help of the head of the school, save only in extreme cases. Further, he should be ready and willing to uphold to the full measure the discipline of every other officer of the school. And along this line of thought it might be said that the teacher who thinks that good discipline is to preserve good order is mistaken. Discipline is a means by which an improvement in the condition of the pupils may be secured. It is not a punishment nor a bringing back from wrong directions, but the leading of them in right paths. The war cry of a teacher should be, "Do it thus," and not, "Do not do it so."

A superintendent of a school for the deaf usually has certain methods which he wishes to be used. His school may be oral or it may be manual, or it may be something else. He usually has some policy, which he would like to have carried out, and in order that the best results may be obtained, he must have the united cooperation of his teachers. It may happen that one or more of his teachers do not believe in the methods he wishes to employ, and, therefore, are merely passive or even oppose him indirectly. The plain duty of these teachers is to get into line with energy and enthusiasm but failing that, to get out. The good of the school demands either one or the other.

The teacher equation continues as one of the vexing problems in our work. Mr. A. C. Manning, superintendent of the Western Pennsylvania School touches on it in this statement quoted in the *West Virginia Tablet* for April 15, 1930:

In our experience of twenty-three years in schools for the deaf, our observation has been that there are too few really ambitious teachers. To be sure teachers need, first, brains and then background, education and special training. Too few teachers have all these qualifications. Some teachers lack one of them; some lack others, and some lack all. But at this we wish to call attention to the fact that so many teachers seem to be satisfied with mediocrity. They are not willing to pay the price of becoming conspicuously capable teachers.

At every convention, at every gathering of superintendents there is a constant search for teachers able to become supervising teachers and principals. Teachers of this quality don't have to seek the job. The job is always seeking the teacher. Witness the superintendents who go visiting other schools looking for just such teachers, because they don't have in their own schools teachers capable of stepping out ahead of the ranks and taking the lead.

Never has there been more room at the top than to-day—as a much prized peppery, persistent, persevering, tenacious teacher or as a leading, teaching, supervising principal.

Mr. Manning's statement of the matter brings forth another from Miss Elizabeth Daniel, principal in the West Virginia School, also in the *West Virginia Tablet* for April 15, 1930, which suggests why so many teachers are content with being mediocre workers.

We believe that Mr. Manning has diagnosed the case correctly when he says that many teachers are satisfied with mediocrity, because they are not willing to pay the price to become conspicuously capable teachers.

We have known more than one teacher who had the necessary brains, education and professional training, but in spite of all those qualifications remained mediocre teachers.

In some cases, no doubt, the main trouble is too many outside interests that absorb the time and energy which should be spent on preparation of school work.

Lack of ambition is the trouble in many cases. Some teachers are content to stay in the same old rut and make no effort to improve the quality of their work. It is easier to be mediocre than to put forth one's best effort and become a really fine or outstanding teacher.

We heartily agree with Mr. Manning when he says, "There is room at the top."

A sign promising an advance in the standard of work of schools for the deaf is reflected in a brief editorial, "Teachers More Plentiful," by Supt. Wirt A. Scott in the *Deaf Mississippian,* April 1, 1930.

From the number of applications we have received this spring from teachers and would-be-teachers, it would seem that the teacher situation has greatly improved, especially as to numbers. The next improvement should be in quality. The training departments in our schools should raise their standards and exercise more care and judgment in the selection of applicants for training. The greatest need of many of the young ladies being turned out as teachers is better educational foundation and background. Many of them are only high school graduates, showing the lack of thoroughness to be found in the ordinary small town high school.

In response to a searching inquiry recently concerning an applicant, we received a report which closed with the following statement: "It grieves me to send such a report, but now that the teacher situation is very much relieved, the sooner misfits adapt themselves to some other line of work the better for all concerned."

In a leading article in the Alabama *Messenger,* May, 1930, Dr. B. R. Showalter, professor of psychology at Alabama Polytechnic Institute, offers some cogent re-

marks on "Psychology for Teachers of the Deaf," the concluding paragraphs of which follow.

The thesis of this article is as simple as it is inescapable: That it is the teacher's business to know not only that psychology which relates to teaching as it is ordinarily conceived but also to know and to practice that which has to do with the wise guidance and development of personality and character.

What Does This Have to Do with Teachers of the Deaf? The deaf, as well as the hard of hearing, are definitely handicapped in the business of making normal adjustments to their environment. In early childhood they are cut off from language—that most fruitful source of ideas and social adjustments. They are isolated in so definite a manner that personality defects develop as a matter of course. When finally they are sent to school, it is to waste, all too often, precious years while a wholly inadequate language vocabulary is being built up. At a time when mental horizons should be broadening, and new understanding acquired, they are still struggling with elementary concepts and language forms. Some of the experimental work now being carried on indicates that in the near future all this may be changed and that we shall no longer be compelled to keep the gates so tightly closed.

Yet should all the studies now under way lead us to vastly improved methods of teaching the deaf, there would still be left for teachers of the deaf a field of responsibility greater than that faced by teachers of the hearing. Children handicapped by sensory defects escape with difficulty, if at all, developing definite feelings of inferiority in their contact with the hearing. Their reactions to this inferiority run through a great range of adjustments more or less satisfactory if not entirely wholesome. Studies of intelligence of deaf children reveal far less difference from that of hearing children than does their achievement in school and out of it, in after life. Part of this is due to our unwise educational procedures. Far more of it, however, is due to the fact that too many of the deaf never recover from that feeling of inferiority forced upon them in early life and moulded into the very fibre of their personalities and characters by their sensory defects. There was a time when we believed this to be inevitable. Here and there we find deaf-mutes who have escaped the blight,—who, though deaf, have won to the high places for which their natural abilities fitted them and did it in open competition with the hearing. What they did because they refused to feel themselves defeated by a handicap, should be possible in similar degree for all the deaf. It is this which teachers of the deaf should make possible.

The writer is not thinking only of greater economic success as a product of the right type of educational program. He has in mind also that greater richness of life which comes to personalities which are well adjusted in spite of all handicaps and defects. The limits of this short article preclude more extended detail, for the whole field of mental health with all its problems is involved.

What then is the conclusion?

Teachers of the deaf need to become expert in two divergent fields of psychology. They need, even more than other teachers, to make such a study of the workings of the mind as it functions

in learning that they may be able to overcome quickly the handicaps imposed by deafness to the end that achievement may somewhat approximate ability. Even more, they need to become masters in that phase of psychology which has to do with the development and maintenance of well-rounded personalities and sound mental health so that their charges may be enabled to occupy the positions in life to which their native abilities entitle them.

All this may sound like the dreams of a visionary, but it is the mature conclusion of one who has known the deaf all his life and whose acquaintance with the field of psychology, both as student and teacher, has extended over more than a score of years.

In plainly spoken terms, in the *Ohio Chronicle* for April 19, 1930, Dr. J. W. Jones pays his respects to the practice of making extravagant claims. The gist of the editorial is contained in this excerpt:

Occasionally people become enthusiastic about the beauty of their work and the great success which is attending it, making statements and even writing articles which mislead. They do not intend it of course, but the effect is to muddy the waters of the educational stream and to obscure the great truths which lie deeply submerged.

We do not blame people for being in love with their work and being enthusiastic about it. It is an excellent sign of progress. But when the tongue and pen get busy, the brakes should be well set and oiled so the speaker and writer may stay within the bounds of truth and reason. It is not necessary always to declare misinformation in so many words; it may be done by inference.

Just at present, truth is being severely injured, if not crushed to earth, by both means of publicity.

Mr. George F. Stewart, in the *Canadian* (Ontario School), December 2, 1929, speaking from the experience of many years of service, offers a bit of advice that is general in nature, yet few principles could be of more practical value to the thoughtful teacher.

There is one field of usefulness which many earnest, energetic people are apt to neglect. Their idea of helpfulness is to do something for someone, to spend their time and strength in the service of others. Yet there are many times when a better idea of helpfulness would prompt us to withhold rather than to give. Drummond says that to toss a coin to a beggar on the street is often easier than not to do it, but if we really wished to be of service to our unfortunate brother we must do for him either less or more. The best way to help others is to lead them to help themselves. Frequently this costs more than the more showy kind of giving aid. A child was putting her playroom to rights slowly and laboriously when an elder sister appeared upon the scene, pushed the little one aside and proceeded to finish the task in the most expeditious manner. "It's easier to do it myself than to show her how to do it right," she said, when someone remonstrated. And it was easier, but not half so kind.

In no other place should this truth be more strongly emphasized than in the classroom, and nowhere is there stronger temptation to forget or ignore it. Many times every day the pupils make mistakes in their work or find difficulty in solving some hard problem, and the teacher, pressed for time and burdened with work, is tempted to make the correction or perform the task himself. It would be so much easier than to lead the pupil to do it himself. Easier, yes, but not so kind—and not so easy, either, in the final issue. That is the wisest teacher, with the truest conception of his duty, who instils into his pupil a desire and determination to fight his own battles, and solve his own problems, and himself overcome the difficulties that confront him; who refuses to do for the child what he can be induced to do for himself; and who aids his class by inspiriting encouragement and helpful suggestion rather than by shifting the whole burden upon his own shoulders.

Education does not consist in possessing knowledge but in the ability to acquire knowledge. This, in fact, is the true purpose, the underlying principle of education—to draw out and to develop and strengthen the mental powers to the greatest possible extent. It is not a matter of such great moment that a pupil should leave school possessed of a large fund of information; but it is of supreme importance that he shall have learned how to be self-reliant and persistent, how to grapple with the difficulties and overcome the obstacles that beset his pathway, whether in the classroom, or in the shop, or on the campus, or amid the sterner duties and activities of "the world's broad field of battle."

Blessed is the teacher who makes himself as unnecessary to his pupils as possible.

Mr. Tobias Brill, principal of the advanced department of the New Jersey School, in a discussion on "Progressives *vs.* Conservatives," in the *Jersey School News,* February, 1930, makes this comment on changes in the educational situation:

Conservative people claim that education when they were young was superior to modern education. They claim that the older generation could spell better, cipher better, and write a better hand. Granting, for the sake of argument, that this is so—as a matter of fact, we think the reverse is true—they do not realize that in the modern world life has become more complex and that the school has to teach not only additional subjects, such as health, vocational preparation, and preparation for the proper use of leisure hours, but also that values have shifted. Oral reading, juggling involved fractions, and Spencerian penmanship are of doubtful value nowadays.

A similar change has been going on in the education of the deaf. Methods used in the past have been called by the conservatives superior to all the so-called new-fangled ideas, and in order to prove this, the fact has been cited that practically no boy who had gone through a school for the deaf in the old days had any difficulty in finding employment. What these people do not realize is that, twenty or even fifteen years ago, industrial conditions were much

simpler, and that the public schools of that day did practically nothing in the way of vocational training. The deaf boy, therefore, was better trained than his hearing brother, not because of the superiority of the school for the deaf then over the school for the deaf nowadays, but rather because of the inferiority of the public school then in the matter of vocational training to the public school nowadays. Conditions have changed very rapidly and very materially. The deaf boy nowadays has to compete with highly trained hearing boys—we do not mean those who graduated from technical high schools or technical colleges, but those who have been trained in vocational schools organized on the grammar school level. The sooner we realize that the majority of our deaf boys are up against this type of competition, the sooner we shall adjust our courses of study and general plans to meet this problem. The superior boy who is college material and capable of technical training on a higher level should receive the special attention he is entitled to, but that is not the "paramount issue." The rank and file are of the type that remains on the grammar school level, and they have to be better trained vocationally than they have been in the past.

Mr. Roy F. Nilson, in the *Colorado Index,* September, 1930, has some telling remarks concerning the ill effects that result from misunderstanding on the part of parents as to how a deaf child should receive his education.

Occasionally a letter comes from a parent who has a child who is to all practical purposes totally deaf. The said letter will read: "We have decided to send John to public school." There sometimes follows a number of excuses, most of which will not hold water. The child is placed in public school (or remains at home) and after one year or two years, upon dint of much persuasion, the parents send him back to a school for the deaf. And with what result? In the two years John has probably grown four inches in height. His classmates have had special instruction in speech and speech-reading. They have continued with their shopwork and are where they should be in the course of study. Because we must progress or go backward in all things, John's lip-reading and speech are now more than likely to be poorer than they were two years previous. He cannot even satisfactorily fit into the class he was in upon leaving the school for the deaf. Owing to his size he feels out of place with children in his grade, who are younger and smaller than he. (It is to be remembered that two years' difference in age means a great deal more to a child's way of thinking than to an adult's.) And thus is school work hampered. For such as he are our special classes enlarged.

In the *Rocky Mountain Leader* for February, 1930, Mr. W. E. Taylor, head teacher in the Montana School, speaks plainly concerning the folly of taking deaf children from school before they complete the course.

Mr. M. P. Moe, State High School Inspector and Director of Vocational Guidance, is quoted as saying that of 1,000 pupils who enter the first grade of our schools only 700 finish the eighth grade,

while but 150 go on through a full high school course. This would indicate that in spite of all the opportunities offered by the state, little more than two-thirds of the boys and girls remain in school long enough to obtain even the limited education offered in the eight lower grades, and only a little more than one in seven finish a high school course, which ought to be the minimum for all who are intellectually able to take it.

A similar condition exists in our school. While practically every child returned to the lower grades this year, from the fifth, sixth and seventh grades we suffered losses of some who should have returned. Possibly the number was slightly increased this year by the drouth that struck a large part of the wheat belt of Montana last summer, but the fact remains that neither parents nor children realize with what a handicap they are afflicting the child in his future life by permitting him to reach manhood's estate without the best education he is able to receive. Deafness or blindness is a sufficient handicap in the battle of life without adding ignorance. The deaf man must learn to do something better than the other fellow in order to have an equal opportunity to do anything. As a business man who has sometimes employed deaf workmen recently said to the writer, "The deaf workman must offer some advantage, must do more work or better work or work cheaper to overcome for the employer the inconvenience in communicating his wants, in order to get work at all." That he very often does just that is greatly to his credit, but he cannot do it without a preparation and training equal to the other fellow's. Parents of deaf children should realize that the deaf man's desirability as an employee, depends, as the desirability of any employee depends, upon the efficiency of his service and the ease or difficulty with which the employer can communicate his desires. This latter difficulty is apt to be very much exaggerated by the employer. Hence the necessity for the deaf to possess superior ability or superior application in order to have an equal chance for employment.

Dr. J. W. Jones, in the *Ohio Chronicle*, December 21, 1929, reveals how an unwholesome lack of confidence in the state school on the part of parents, plus misguided home affection, may make a social misfit of a pupil.

Fifteen years ago a bright little boy, seven years of age, was reluctantly sent to this school by his parents. In a week they took him home saying he was not deaf, that he could hear thunder, the whistle of a train, and the stamping of a foot. He, therefore, according to their judgment, did not belong in a school for the deaf.

They abhorred the sign language and finger spelling and decided that their son should never learn either.

They were well-to-do people and could send him to a private school if they so desired. They refused to listen to any advice which was given them by any people who knew what was best for their child and accepted every statement from those who did not know but who steered them away from the State school.

They sent him first to one private school and then to another; to a day-school, to schools for the hearing, until he reached twenty-two years of age.

His mother died quite a while ago and a few months ago his father passed away. This left the young man in the hands of relatives who were willing to help him, but did not want him sitting around the house spending a life of idleness.

Yet, there was nothing he could do. He was brought to the school a few days ago for a conference and for advice. There he was, a fine looking young man, tall, slender, but well developed. He was smoking a cigarette and every indication showed that he was its victim. His relatives said the case was hopeless and the boy was helpless. We had no trouble in reaching the same conclusion.

We recommended several lines of work that the deaf do very well and that he might try out some of these. The boy, however, has not learned the lesson of application, diligence and discipline. For these reasons we fear very much for his future.

Out on our ball grounds were twenty young men practicing football for the October games. They had all been earning money during summer vacation and they are well equipped with it for the winter. They could all talk as well as this young man, knew the sign language and finger spelling, were as happy as human beings can be, and their friends have no concern for their future. No one is pondering over them and wondering what will become of them. There are no idle hours for them. They will be a burden to no one. Later they will marry, have families, send their children to school and through college. They are generally boys from families of moderate or meager means. In comparison, the other boy had every advantage. The parents sent him in one direction and he lost his opportunities. He is now a helpless, unhappy human being and makes others unhappy. His life so far has been naught. The other boys are full of hope and assurance. No one is sad for them. They will take their places by the side of other young men and meet all the world's obligations fearlessly and successfully. We have occasion to call attention to a case like this almost every year. Will people never learn the difference? Even now we have a case starting in Ohio, but this case would be no argument to them. In their minds their child is different and the results would be different. Fifteen years from now someone will be reproducing this editorial or one like it on account of the foolishness of some parents.

A disturbing matter in many schools for the deaf is the apparent let down in progress when pupils take up the work of the grades beyond the primary years. In one of a series of timely Family Chats for the benefit of parents, Principal E. A. Stevenson, in the *California News* of February 20, 1930, attempts to account for this condition.

One of the many statements made by the average mother is that she cannot understand why her boy is not doing so well in the sixth grade and is receiving such low marks. When he was in the first and second-year classes he was very bright and his marks were very high. Now what is the reason for this apparent slump? She will sometimes praise the teachers of the first two classes and condemn the teaching ability of those who have had her son since

that time. All this is unfair in many cases where a school is well organized and graded.

The explanation of this apparent slump in progress is easily made. To be sure, the teacher of the first and second years of a deaf child must be of a high type. She must be well trained and grounded in her understanding of speech and lip-reading. She must have personality. However, her span of mental testing and growth at this time is very little. The average normal deaf child does not have difficulty in covering the work as laid down for these early years. If he is attentive and alert he can effect good work. The work is largely imitative and memory. The teacher is teaching disconnected forms in the way of consonants, vowels, combinations, and words. The sentence structure is very simple and restricted to three slates. There is no great taxing of the language sense in these early grades. This language sense is the key to the whole situation. The concern of the teacher of the early years is the proper teaching of speech and the beginning of lip-reading which is in the simplest form of all the years of speech and lip-reading. Here the true struggle with the use of language has not really appeared. As the child leaves the first and second years' work and proceeds through the third, fourth, and fifth grades, the speech and lip-reading become more complicated, trying, and difficult because of the actual teaching of language principles and forms. At this period the teacher not only must be a good teacher of speech and lip-reading but also one who understands how to teach language. The child must now develop language sense with which he was not confronted in his first year. Add to this the fact that he has branched out into subject matter. He now studies arithmetic, geography, history, story and reading. Without a good grasp of language he cannot hope to do well in these other subjects. In his first year he receives marks in speech and lip-reading only. In the sixth year, he receives marks in several other studies. In speech and lip-reading, the average teacher finds it difficult to have a common standard for marking. As a result the marking as a rule is high. In the upper grades, however, more is expected in speech and lip-reading and marking is given accordingly. Likewise, more is expected of him in his different subjects.

Therefore, do not be quick to praise the work of one teacher and condemn the work of another. There are times, of course, when this is justified. Yet, many times the conditions are as I have indicated above and for the reasons that I have given. This is found so in all schools for the deaf. However, we are thinking of every possible means to prevent this situation arising in the fifth and sixth years. My feeling is that the "language sense" will have to begin sooner than it does and that teachers of the first and second years will have to become teachers of language principles as well as teachers of speech and will have to give a stronger foundation in language use and comprehension than is now given. There will have to be more reading, more written work, and more purposeful teaching. It is hoped that the time will come when there will be no weak period in a deaf child's school life and that a deaf child who gives evidence of being an intelligent pupil the first year will continue to demonstrate this evidence throughout his school career.

Further emphasizing the need for developing much earlier the intuitive language sense of children, just referred to by Mr. Stevenson, Supt. J. W. Blattner of the Oklahoma School, in the *Deaf Oklahoman* for May 15, 1930, has this to say:

We agree with our California friend in the above, and are disposed to go even further. The development of the so-called language sense should begin quite soon (perhaps two or three months at most) after a child of usual mental ability enters school. Drill in the elementary sounds and their combination into words must be extended over a considerable period, but this can go along with the development of the sentence. There is positively no reason why sentence development in the child's consciousness should give way almost entirely, the first two years, to this long-drawn-out drill, drill, drill in the elements of speech, important as the latter admittedly is.

Psychologically there is, moreover, no reason why the child should not begin to learn self-expression in the simplest language forms practically from the start of his educational career. The best teachers of the deaf advocate such a policy and the best schools, even among those that are pure oral, practice it. If you will go to Northampton, Lexington Avenue, Scranton, Mt. Airy, Horace Mann or the Parker school in Chicago, you will see whether they devote the first year or two exclusively to drill in the mere disconnected elements of speech. The command of connected English that pupils at Clarke School gain the first year of their schooling is truly remarkable. We know whereof we speak. This drill *ad infinitum* in disconnected speech elements is contrary to the best pedagogical thought, and the policy of thoroughly well organized schools discountenances its practice these days. Mr. Pope undoubtedly had reference to just such practice, when he spoke in his remarkably able article, "The Scientific Spirit," of giving high-school graduates a few months' superficial training and starting them out as full-fledged teachers with a basket of tricks.

When the child first enters school, he has already accumulated a fund of ideas and this fund is added to ever more rapidly with the passage of his school days. An irresistible demand for expression asserts itself; the wings of the child's mentality perpetually beat against the barrier of non-expression. It is the province of the primary teacher, as that of higher grade teachers, to give the child the means of verbal expression as speedily as possible, or his thoughts will find vent through the medium first of crude gestures and soon of conventional signs. His ideas come to him so fast that we can not entirely prevent the latter resort, however much we may try, but we should do our best to minimize it. That is according to sound pedadogical principles.

In the past year a marked tendency to concentrate upon placing all school departments upon a better English basis was noticeable in the little paper fraternity.

The following statement from the *Deaf Carolinian,* North Carolina School, September 21, 1929, is an expression of this policy:

At the teachers' meeting last week Miss Joiner, our educational principal, again made an appeal to our teachers and officers to cooperate in bringing about a better English atmosphere among the school children. She made a similar appeal last year. Probably the results have not been as we wish them to be, though some encouraging words were said about our speech and lip-reading. The speech and lip-reading and manual spelling tests last spring proved that over 90 per cent of our children are very good lip-readers and finger-spelling readers. Since they are so, why not speak or spell to them all the time?

In the schoolroom the conditions have been so greatly improved that very little sign language is used, if at all. It is the outside part of the work we must tackle. So upon the supervisors and all other officers in charge of children out of the schoolroom falls the responsibility to cooperate with the teachers. Unless this is done with the right kind of spirit, we cannot expect the desired results.

It is gratifying to see our industrial instructors all of one mind—determined to "ban" the use of sign language as far as possible in their respective shops. These children will, in time, know all names of tools, all technical terms, and how to read instructions and to tell what they are doing in good English.

Even at our boy scout and girl scout meetings efforts are being made to use as much spoken and spelled English as possible. The same may be said of our literary and Christian Endeavor societies. The aim is to create a better English atmosphere in the whole school.

Our principal task in educating deaf children is to get them to learn and use English, for once they get a good working command of English everything else will be comparatively simple, and their progress toward an all-round education is assured.

We realize that not all deaf children can succeed, for there are always some of limited ability, but what little foundation in English the latter may get from constant use of English will be of great help to them. They would know more English, anyway.

Let us insist that the older pupils use English when they communicate with the younger ones. That is one sure way of getting better results, for the younger children take after the older ones.

Let us—every one of us—ever have this in mind and *cooperate.*

Herewith is presented an evaluation of the sign language by a keen-minded teacher, Mr. James N. Orman of the Kansas School, in an editorial in the *Kansas Star,* February, 1930.

The sign language, as used by the deaf, is a language of movements with the hands and arms. Usually, though not always, it is accompanied by changes in facial expression. These changes play something of the role that changes in the tone of voice do in speaking.

The salient facts about this language are:

1. The great criticism against it is that it is an unusual means of communication. It is argued that its use puts the deaf in a class apart. This is true, with the sole qualification that the deaf who use it often mix freely with hearing people by means of spoken and written communication.

2. The second important criticism of the sign language is that it is non-grammatical. Peculiarities in language construction among the deaf are attributed to its use. In this connection it is well to note, however, that these same peculiarities are often found in the language of deaf children educated without its use inside or outside the classroom.

3. As a corollary of the above, the sign language probably conduces to inexactness of thinking in the inferior deaf child. On the other hand, it is entirely possible for fully educated deaf people comfortably to carry on the highest type of conversation in its medium without loss in subtlety and point of meaning.

4. As a means of instruction, the sign language, especially finger spelling, has certain marked advantages. It is accurate, rapid and non-fatiguing.

5. As a means of communication between pupils, it is popular, readily assimilated and enables them to forget their deafness throughout happy hours. At the same time it seriously interferes with vocabulary acquisition and mastery of idioms. But as before stated it is evident that the remedy lies deeper than the mere elimination of signs.

7. The indiscriminate use of the sign language tends to interfere with speech and lip-reading. However, many skilled lip-readers have always used sign language, whereas many who have been barred its use have never developed into practical lip-readers.

The following editorial, headed "Preparing for Disappointment," taken from the *Ohio Chronicle*, December 14, 1929, is a striking instance of the frankness that always marks the writings of Dr. J. W. Jones of the Ohio School. The force of the contention is no whit lessened by the fact that the Ohio School itself devotes a large part of its energies to a most creditable program of speech work.

Frequently some interested father or mother calls in the office to discuss the education of a deaf child, having in mind only one thing and they call that lip-reading. Of course, with it goes speech. Everything else is lost sight of, however much desired an education may be. They do not want the sign language or finger spelling.

After thirty-five years of hearing such requests and watching for results, we can not help but realize what a great disappointment is in store for them, no matter where the child attends school.

They know nothing about what they ask. They have read a great many exaggerations and they watch for every sign and symptom to bolster up their highest ambition. No one can blame them for

that. Any parent of a deaf child would wish him to talk and to read the lips and to secure for him a good education.

But what per cent of the deaf make good lip-readers and good talkers? We refer to the real deaf, not to the semi-deaf and the semi-mutes. Occasionally there is a wonderful speech-reader. Such people can understand the speech of another apparently without effort and from any angle.

But at a reunion of several hundred former pupils at any of our schools, two or three such great lip-readers will likely be present. The decrease from those down is very rapid and the vanishing point is reached quickly. The large mass of them depend upon other means of communication and like them. They get much pleasure and happiness out of the friendly intercourse they have with each other and with those with whom they can talk. When they come in contact with those who do not know the sign language and finger spelling, pencil and pad are short, sure and conclusive. They seem to enjoy that means of communication also and those who write with them likewise get pleasure out of it.

We know what disappointment is in store for these ambitious parents and it makes us sad. When we urge upon them the beauties of a combined education and the profit and pleasure children get out of it, it makes them sad.

This is the unhappy spot in our work. It might be spoken of as the blind spot because the parents can not see through it.

In the *Missouri Record* for May 17, 1930, Miss Elizabeth H. Rice, supervising teacher in the Missouri School, has some interesting suggestions on how to secure closer correlation between the work of the classroom and actual experience outside, especially with the younger children.

A few weeks ago Mr. Day asked several teachers who have beginning and first grade pupils to give a demonstration of lip-reading in McKee Hall, the home of our smallest children.

In the large upstairs hall the teachers gave such commands as "Brush your teeth", "Make your bed", "Open the window", "Brush your shoes." The children went to the bathroom or to the bedroom and obeyed directions. The teachers then went to the dining room where real food was provided. The children put the food on the dining tables and then sat down and pretended to eat. Such commands as "Put the meat on the table", "Fill the glasses with water", "Please, pass the bread" were given. A little later games were played, the children carrying out the teacher's directions.

This experiment proved valuable. It showed very clearly that more frequent trips to the house and to the playground for lip-reading lessons were necessary. In every instance the children responded correctly but slowly as if quite uncertain. To those of us accustomed to the ready response in the classroom it indicated a failure to correlate toys and pictures used in the classroom with the real things.

When the games were played, the response was exactly the same

as that made in the schoolroom because exactly the same articles were used in a like manner.

Why should we teach the word "seesaw" with a picture when there are real seesaws on the playground? Or why should we say "Make the bed" and use a doll bed when real beds might be used? Time is precious and it is difficult to hold attention outside the classroom. There are so many interesting things that demand attention. Unless a teacher planned wisely and definitely, there would be great loss of time. At best there is necessarily a loss but on the other hand will the first impressions be so much greater that the need for constant review will be correspondingly lessened?

In many of our courses of study are found such commands as "Hop", "Dance", "Clap your hands", etc. Would it not be wise to substitute for these the more useful commands "Sweep", "Tell Mary to come", "Put away your . . . .," etc. There is great need for many more useful commands.

When we train our pupils to give the ready response to which we are accustomed in school, at the house and on the playground, will not the supervisor adopt speech as the easiest method of communication?

There is so much to teach in a limited time that the choice is difficult. The crying need is a greater vocabulary. We teach one thing and find we need not only that but something else as well until the earnest enthusiastic teacher finds great temptation to give more than can be assimilated. And that is the saddest of all mistakes.

Supt. O. M. Pittenger of the Indiana School, in the *Silent Hoosier,* November 1, 1929, makes this suggestion as to how greater interest in speech work may be aroused:

Basket-ball tournaments have created so much interest and enthusiasm for athletics that teachers are appropriating the idea for promoting interest in speech and lip-reading. Since entering this work more than ten years ago, we have thought that too much emphasis has been placed on technique, not enough in stimulating interest and providing abundant subject matter for growth and development. Once a child really wants to talk and read the lips, much of the battle has been won. A speech-reading tournament in our school has brought not only renewed interest but excellent results.

Words of caution concerning the newer enthusiasm in teaching reading are expressed by the editor of the *Alabama Messenger,* January, 1930, in this wise:

A short-cut educational method was condemned at the Congress of Physicians and Surgeons held in Washington not long ago when the congress vigorously expressed its disapproval of the modern method of teaching children to read before they have been taught the alphabet. As if to check the rushing of beginners on our scholastic highways the learned body of medical mentors has, as it were, raised the "slow down" signal—and considering the authority of the gesture it should act as a timely restraining force.

If speed were the only consideration in learning to read—an accomplishment which Carlyle has called the sum of an education—then the "word method" would be a good one in the estimation of the congress. But there are more important considerations, as all thoughtful educators have observed before the fact was called to our attention by the aforementioned congress. It has often been remarked in our branch of the teaching profession that one advantage the deaf have in learning to read is that they get their words and sentences laboriously, letter by letter, and as a result are better spellers than if they were guided by sound in their perusal of the printed page. They unconsciously approximate Ruskin's ideal of noting not only the words of one's reading but even the letters of the words.

Besides making better spellers the alphabet method of teaching children to read builds up their vocabulary, as one scholar has pointed out, by inducing them to use the dictionary and other books of reference. It is when the mind is young that the numberless variations in words made by prefixes and suffixes should be fixed in the memory, and this cannot be done by taking in a sentence at a glance, however commendable the rapid devouring of print may be after one has acquired his education.

It is the learning of "the images of words rather than the letters composing them" that was condemned by the congress. It is the substitution of images or signs for words that we teachers of the deaf need to guard against. When a pupil asks for the definition of a word, it sometimes takes a lot of patience to explain it to him in words instead of signs, especially when it is difficult to give the definition in language within the child's comprehension. But when we realize that in explaining the meaning of a word by a lazy gesture or two we are limiting the learner's chances of acquiring a vocabulary, we should be willing to take the extra time required to give the meaning of the word in words and impress them on the memory.

How to teach shop language seems to be one of the perennial questions. The opinion of a veteran teacher, Mr. Winfield S. Runde, of the California School, is given in this extract from the *California News*, April 23, 1930:

The question of who should teach shop language is agitating some of the school papers. In one school, we understand, teachers in the academic department take up this phase of the deaf pupils' training. In other schools the different instructors of the various trades teach the language along with the trade. This latter method naturally is the very best means of teaching the pupils the language of their trade, and any instructor of a trade ought to be competent to do it and to do it thoroughly.

In schools for normal pupils it is not the custom to send the academic teachers to the shop to teach the language of each particular trade. Such teachers are not supposed to know, nor do they really know, the technicalities of every trade they are not interested in except to know the names of the implements used. The best teacher of any subject is the teacher who concentrates on that subject and lives by it. The teacher of history, for instance, knows his

dates and the incidents they record in the progress of mankind. Can he successfully switch to the shoe shop, after feeding his young learners on the stirring events of the past, and take up details of sole repairing in a practical way that would teach the hands and minds how to become efficient enough to guarantee them their bread and butter? Let the shoemaker stick to his last!

How it is done in the Maryland School at Frederick is explained in the *Maryland Bulletin* for May, 1930, by Supt. I. Bjorlee.

One or two of the exchanges have been quite "het up" about what appears to be a revival of special shop-language instruction in some of the schools.

A course of shop language is being conducted at the Maryland School under circumstances and conditions which are proving beneficial and appear to be supplying a need which exists in our school.

We believe it is a lack of knowledge concerning the method under which this work is conducted that has raised the question. In the first place it is not an academic but a trades teacher who is in charge of this work. This teacher is working out a plan whereby the names and terms most frequently used in the different trades can be taught to the pupils. No particular thought has been given to the permanency of this course. In the meantime all of the teachers of the trades department are getting the benefit of the ideas and suggestions brought forth by the teacher in charge and eventually each teacher may give some attention daily to special drill in shop-language work.

We seriously doubt that any school for the deaf in the country has a complete staff of trades teachers who have had normal training to equip them as teachers That being the case, it would seem but reasonable and sound to designate a college graduate who at the same time is a trades teacher, to devote some special time and attention to shop language in a manner that may be of benefit to teachers and pupils alike.

Some one has said that shop language is not different from any other language. This is true only in part and of a "Doubting Thomas" we would simply ask that the test be applied by permitting the average young lady teacher in the academic department to spend a half hour in one of the vocational departments and then write a comprehensive report of what she saw.

Another answer to the question may be had in this pointed statement by Mr. Edwin A. Hodgson, in the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal,* January 16, 1930:

It has lately been observed that the plan of delegating teachers from the academic department of the school to give instruction in "shop language," is again being agitated.

It was thought this idea was dead, and that the deaf pupils would be unhampered by outside advice of any kind. There is no single teacher who can give proper instruction in the colloquial language of several different trades. A teacher may be proficient in his knowledge of the implements used and the processes followed in one trade. But so is the instructor of that trade. And every

trade teacher should know how to inculcate "shop language"—which is no different, except in technicalities, from school language.

However, it is not the practice of men at work in any trade to waste time in talking. They are generally given written directions, and if they know their trade even fairly well, they can go right ahead and do what is required. The written directions are returned with the completed job, and are silent proof of the correctness of its execution.

The deaf require skilled instruction in grammatical language, and if it is thoroughly given in the schoolroom there will be no necessity of a special course in "shop language."

In the following brief item from the *Western Pennsylvanian* for October 10, 1929, we note an instance in which actions speak louder than words:

At the urgent request of several of our women teachers, Mr. H. A. Lemley, the head of our woodworking department, has started a class in woodwork which meets every Monday evening. There were twenty-two applications for membership in the class, but for lack of room, Mr. Lemley had to limit the number to thirteen.

Although it is not a new contention, the cry that schools for the deaf must see to the modernizing of their vocational teaching is forcefully expressed in an editorial by Mr. I. S. Dunn, of the Illinois School, in the *Illinois Advance*, March 15, 1930:

The importance of the industrial or vocational teaching in the schools for the deaf is becoming realized more and more as the study of the science of education progresses. In fact schools of all kinds are taking up instruction in industrial trades as a part of their curriculum. Just recently it was called to our attention that the state normal schools of Illinois were nearly all preparing to add printing to their list of studies taught. This is a decided revolution in normal school work, for their function in the past has been supposed to be merely the preparation of teachers for the branches of study emanating from the three R's.

Among the first schools in the educational world to adopt vocational training were the institutions for the deaf. The pioneers in the conception and management of the schools for the deaf considered it absolutely necessary to provide exceptional educational facilities for the deaf child in the trades because of the handicap of being unable to hear—and many times—to speak.

Thus has grown the vocational school, and now with the entrance of the high school, the technical school, the normal school, and many others in the field to prepare the normal child for his life work, it becomes doubly important that the most strenuous efforts be put forth to prepare the handicapped child for the battle of life which confronts him.

In order to do this, new and up-to-date equipment and machinery must be placed in the classroom, so that he may learn to operate and use the equipment that he will find in the shops and offices where he willl find employment. It is no use to talk only of the

fundamentals of the trade. It is a part of our understanding that these will be taught by any competent instructor. But in addition to the fundamentals he should be taught to operate up-to-date machinery, and these machines should be provided for his use.

The seriousness of the general industrial situation and its bearing upon the program of vocational training are discussed in this editorial by Mr. O. W. Underhill in the *Deaf Carolinian*, March 1, 1930:

Last Sunday we had a visit from a former pupil who hails from the industrial center of the State. He brought us the bad news that a good many of our deaf citizens are either indefinitely laid off or working on part time. We presume that the same conditions prevail throughout the country. While we hope that this industrial depression is but temporary and that better times are coming for our deaf workers, we cannot deny the fact that it presents a serious problem in the work of training deaf children for life work. In these days of mass production and labor-saving and automatic machinery, it is a problem whether the young deaf man upon leaving school with such rudiments of a trade education as most of our schools are giving can find steady employment or knock about in vain. Modern industry requires the specialized operator.

Now, down to actual facts, the old-time carpenters seem to be among the greatest sufferers. The concrete and steel construction work has turned thousands of them out of work. Wherever woodwork is needed, it is done in so short a time that it does not pay enough to make a living. Demand for shoe repairers seems to be on the decline. It may be attributed to the fact that a majority of shoe-repairing shops are owned by foreigners who employ cheap labor. Deaf printers are finding increased difficulty in getting steady work on account of limited training or specializing.

Times have changed. Trade schools are being founded throughout the country offering our hearing young men opportunities to become specialized in one line of work before they enter the industrial society. What about the trade-teaching in our schools for the deaf? We surely cannot afford to allow our deaf boys to go out into the world with nothing but rudiments of training and to finish on the outside. Mr. Henry Ford has declared that time has come for every young man to learn a trade as soon as he gets a basic education. He is to found trade schools to help the young men of America to fit themselves into the world. We owe it to our deaf children to prepare them for useful citizenship.

The North Carolina School is aware of this situation. Our superintendent will soon arrange conferences with the officials of big industrial plants with a view of getting their interest and cooperation in the training of our deaf boys and girls. We realize that in the future masses of people are destined to work in the factory, doing specialized or unit work. It would be a good plan to install one or two units of machinery in our shops for instruction of capable young men and women to take up work in some particular big plant after school days.

We suggest that the committee on the industrial section of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf get Henry Ford

interested in giving young deaf men the same opportunities that he is giving to the hearing young men. Mr. Ford has been very favorable toward deaf workers in his plants, and we feel sure that if he is approached in the right way he will include the deaf in his philanthropic work.

The fact that deaf pupils after leaving school do not follow the trades learned at school is always a matter of concern. Supt. Roy F. Nilson of the Arizona School, in the *Arizona Cactus* for February, 1930, advances the suggestion in the following editorial that this is perhaps a failing natural with hearing persons as well as with the deaf.

During the past few months a good deal of space has been given to articles devoted to discussion of why our deaf boys do not continue the trades they followed in school. Different reasons have been advanced for this. Some say that employers are sometimes prejudiced against deaf workers. Some say that the instruction received in schools does not properly train our boys to follow their trade and that they often knock about and suffer so much adversity that they are glad to get any kind of job and hold it. All of which is probably true.

It is certain that our shop work is a valuable part of the training of our pupils in our state schools. It is as important for our pupils to be trained along some special line so that they will have a means of support as it is to teach them their academic work. This goes without saying. In the schools where the industrial department is inferior to the literary department it is the ideal of our school heads to bring up the standard of industrial work.

We are wondering, however, just how much importance should be attached to the fact that our boys and girls do not follow the trades they have been taught. Are they very different in this respect from our hearing boys and girls? History is full of stories of men who have trained along one line only to follow another. We have in mind a very prosperous salesman who studied law, passed the examinations for the bar and never practiced. He had no desire to follow law after graduation. The percentage of young men in high school and college who know definitely what they want to do, train with a definite objective and follow their line after leaving the school is small. Fortunate is the boy who can do this.

We greatly admire Admiral Byrd because from the time he was a little fellow he said he wanted to be an explorer. He followed his original intent to a high goal, but how many do this? We wonder if this changing about among our deaf pupils is any greater than among their hearing friends.

The practical suggestion that the alumni groups of schools for the deaf compile occupational directories of their members, thus obtaining information that could be made of great value to school authorities is made by Mr.

Tom L. Anderson, editor of the *Iowa Hawkeye* in its issue for April 1, 1930.

The fashion among the deaf at large seems to be to look too much to the state school for leadership in affairs that are not always the business of the school. Employment, welfare work, vocational advice, are some of the services expected of the school, or of individuals connected with the school, which can scarcely be extended beyond the school boundaries.

We are sure that school officials would not resent it if the alumni groups, properly advised and properly led, would develop worth-while activities, which seem to have been fastened upon the schools by growth of custom.

It would be admirable, for instance, if the Iowa Association of the Deaf would attempt to compile among its members an "Occupational Directory," containing a list of all graduates and ex-pupils of the school, present occupation, occupations followed since leaving school, trade followed in the school shops, how first job was obtained, and such other information as would prove helpful to one making a study of the deaf outside of school.

Practically all the records available for study concern the pupils in school. The school finds it impossible to follow its graduates, to keep up-to-date records of the nature required in answering the question, "What percentage of your graduates are printers?" Everyone about the school is too busily engaged with the pupils at hand, who need all the available thought and attention of school teachers and officers, to concern himself with the scattered alumni.

A directory of the graduates and ex-pupils of the Iowa School would prove of interest and value to all, and might be sold at a profit which would increase the Endowment Fund. If the directory were compiled with care, and exact information given in each case, it would be of value to the school management, and might possibly be used to determine the policy of the industrial department.

The school printery might undertake to publish the directory at cost price, if the Association officials would bestir themselves and get the information. This can be obtained either through the work of the officials themselves, or through the help of a large committee of energetic members closely covering the entire state, and working after the manner of census agents. We suggest both: the committee to help the officials get the information, and the latter to see to the compiling and publishing.

Dr. J. L. Smith, in an editorial in the Minnesota School *Companion*, February 27, 1930, calls attention to the lack of facilities for adult education of the deaf. Considering the opportunities otherwise available to hearing persons, especially along the line of continuation schools, this is a most timely criticism.

One of the marked features of modern education is the increasing attention being given to adult education—the education of those grown-ups who, for one reason or another, failed to get a good education during childhood and youth, and who are desirous to

improve themselves. This movement is exemplified in the evening schools, in extension courses, in correspondence schools, and in short term courses. But it seems that the adult deaf are left out in the cold in this branch of educational work. Is it not about time for some of the larger schools for the deaf to take the matter up and do something? Why can not evening schools be established in localities where a sufficient number of adult deaf people could be gathered together to justify the experiment? Take the cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis, for instance. The deaf there have a fine clubhouse centrally located. At present it is only a place for recreation and social gatherings. Could not an educational feature be added, and thus increase its usefulness?

The Special Class is always a problem in schools for the deaf, and what appears to be a successful program with such a group in the Pennsylvania Institution is outlined by Miss Louise Upham, principal of the Primary Department, in the *Mt. Airy World*, October, 1929.

The general plan of work as outlined for our Special Class is in no way identical with the work of the Industrial Department. While in the Industrial Department all pupils over twelve years of age receive vocational or pre-vocational training, it is our aim to reach the child of slow mental development, to give him opportunity to develop along lines to which he is capable of responding, to train him to use his hands, and to make him realize that he has within himself the ability to create something. The interest that is aroused by achievement is far-reaching, for it serves as an opening wedge in awakening the child's mind and for the whole scheme of work that is to follow.

The Special Class is composed of pupils who have been unable to make progress in the regular classes as they were incapable of meeting the demands put upon them. We tried several experiments in our efforts to find a way of reaching children of this type—not only to give them work that they could do, but work that they would enjoy doing. There is nothing more discouraging than continued failure and the child who feels that something is expected of him that he cannot do soon reaches a pitiable state. In the Special Class the child can and does accomplish something, and thus gains not only confidence in himself, establishing his own self-respect, but he gains the respect of his comrades as well.

Children of slow development who are capable of taking speech and lip-reading remain in the regular classes. The Special Class is for the boy or girl who cannot be taught to read the lips nor to speak; and no child is placed in this class who has not been given his chance in a regular class. We have had pupils in the Special Class who have been further handicapped—not only deaf and slow mentally, but children who have suffered from bad eyesight, children with certain malformations that have made speech impossible, children with nervous disorders, and so on.

We usually have in the Primary Department about one hundred and ninety pupils and never more than ten of them in the Special

Class at one time. The percentage of children of this type in a group of nearly two hundred does not seem unduly large.

The daily program for the class:

8:10 to 10:45—Written language
11:00 to 1:00—Handwork

Written language:

(a) Language work similar to that given in the regular classes.
(b) Stressing language based upon the various sorts of handwork the pupils are taught.

Handwork:

Sewing, crocheting, cross-stitch work, etc. Older girls taught to use sewing machine.
Weaving—A definite sequence of small hand looms, table loom, treadle loom.
Elementary woodwork
Basketry, raffia work
Block printing
Hooked rug work—seats for chairs—rugs.

The room for the Special Class is well equipped with the necessary furnishings. Besides the usual schoolroom furniture, we have two looms of different types, workbench, frames for hooked rugs, sewing machine, etc. Owing to the generosity of one of the members of our Board we have acquired recently an adjoining room for supplies. The materials used in the various sorts of handwork require considerable space and the supply room has been a long-felt need.

Each child is taught one sort of handwork until he reaches a reasonable degree of assurance—until he can work quite independently of the teacher's instructions. When A. (while on the playground) strips a vine of its leaves, using the vine to make a perfectly good basket, or B. (while in the playroom) makes a cardboard loom and weaves a little rug, or C. teaches her little friend how to work a cross-stitch pattern on her doll's dress, we feel that by such spontaneous expressions we have evidence not only of the application the children are able to make of what they have been taught in school, but of the genuine interest, satisfaction, and pleasure they take in their work.

The pupils are taught:—

(a) The names of the materials they use,—wood, nails, reed, cloth, wool, floss, thread, etc.
(b) Names of things they work on: Workbench, looms, rug frames, etc.
(c) Names of tools,—saw, hammer, plane, scissors, etc.
(d) The verbs,—work, make, weave, sew, saw, etc.
(e) Names of the finished products,—rugs, pillows, baskets; names of toys and toy furniture; names of articles of clothing made for the dolls, etc.

As all the things that are made have a definite use, the children have the satisfaction of seeing the practical purpose to which the things they have made are put. The rugs, curtains, runners, towels, table covers and pillows are used in the household. Baskets are made for the schoolrooms—object baskets for teachers' use, baskets for crayons, hanging baskets for plants, etc. Book ends, door stops, and bags are made for the schoolrooms. Dolls are dressed and toys are made for the playrooms. Dolls are dressed for the

schoolrooms—bedspreads, sheets, pillow cases, bureau covers, etc., are made for the toy furniture. A doll house was furnished by one class. Toys of various description are made of wood, cloth, and other materials. The larger girls have made dresses and bloomers for the little ones. They have knitted caps for children who were in need of them. Articles are made and decorated with designs made by block printing, and so on.

The things that have been made and materials used, and the language exercises have gone hand in hand. Not only does the handwork furnish language for the Special Class, but the teachers throughout the department take advantage of it with the result that many lessons of personal interest have delighted a large group of children.

Our object has not been to have the child turn out a perfectly finished product, but rather to help him in the proper use of tools and materials, and to train him to want to do each piece of work as well as he can do it. In following the development and progress of the individual members of the Special Class we feel we have proof of the educational value of such training for these children.

Commenting on a discussion before a regular Teachers' meeting at the Ohio School—the main subject being "Proper Marking and Grading of Pupils"—Dr. J. W. Jones, in the *Ohio Chronicle* for May 10, 1930, very properly advises against extremes in policy.

As is well known, there is great difference in opinion among teachers in estimating the work of their pupils. Some are very liberal, others are quite stingy. The object of our meeting was to find the golden mean where God lives and love flourishes. That is the place to put the marks and the mean is wide enough to give ample range from low to high marks.

Very high grades known by everybody not to be justified are ridiculous. Even children do not respect them. Grades so low as to indicate severe disappointment on the part of the teachers because of lack of response are wrong also.

Once to our knowledge a bright boy received very low marks and the teacher gave as her reason the fact that everybody pets him and that he thinks he is so smart. Another explanation for low grades of a child that seemed to be entitled to a fair or excellent rating was that he needs to be brought down a peg or two. A little humiliation will do him good.

Another teacher, who was giving ninety-five, ninety-eight, ninety-nine and one hundred per cent to very indifferent pupils doing very indifferent work, said that she felt so sorry for them.

Both of these extremes are wrong. The effort should be to find out what a child's work is really worth in comparison with what he is expected to do and to mark it accordingly. The effort should always be present to see that a child does his best under the most favorable and happy conditions.

The teacher is hardly justified in letting a pupil loaf through the month and then give him a low grade hoping he will take notice and put forth effort next month of his own accord. A better plan

would be to see that each child makes the best out of his time day by day.

A month's loss is a serious matter and a year's loss is deplorable. Of course, we all know that there are pupils that do not have sufficient mentality to make perceptible progress even under pressure. But it is the children that could but do not to whom pressure should be gently applied.

Editor Edwin A. Hodgson, in the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal* for April 3, 1930, referring to the annual interstate basket ball tournaments in which a large number of schools in different sections of the country participate, commends them in these words:

Many unthinking people fail to accord proper importance to the play spirit of the young. Bending over books with brows perplexed is not the entire scheme of education.

Athletic exercise and sport on the playground are necessary to a successful school life. They train the mind as well as the body. They produce alert and self-reliant young men, who by practicing the rules of the game become truthful and dependable. In their sports they are more inclined to think than to memorize, because to play any game well requires quick and accurate thinking.

These recent tournaments should be emphasized as of great influence in character training, and the department of physical training should be accorded merited significance as a valuable feature in the scheme of education of the deaf.

Accustomed as we are to records of the prowess of the deaf in athletics, we must confess experiencing pleasant surprise over the feat of the wrestling squad of the Arkansas School in competition in the Arkansas state championships. According to the *Arkansas Optic,* April, 1930:

The A. S. D. wrestling team came out on top in seven out of ten divisions. This is by far the largest number of championships won by any team in a single state tournament, and we are proud of our achievement. Championships were in the following classes:

Middleweight; Welterweight; Lightweight; 90-pound class; 80-pound class; 60-pound class; 50-pound class.

In addition to the above championships our boys took three second places and seven third places. Each of these winners will receive medals.

Wrestling as a major sport is still in its infancy, but it is fast gaining in popularity among our boys. It is the one and only competitive sport in which boys unable to make either the football or basket ball team can win admiration and recognition for themselves among the student body. Quite a few of these one-time unpopular boys have humbled basket ball and football stars who came out to make the wrestling team.

It is a clean, wholesome sport when managed properly and should be one of the recognized sports in all our schools, for it gives the under dog a chance. Mr. Nathan Zimble, principal, who was one-time runner-up to represent the United States in the Olympic Games, has charge of the activity.

The instructors of the Kentucky School, as reported in the *Kentucky Standard,* November 28, 1929, made the occasion of their first Teachers' Meeting of the year one for formulating procedure in subsequent meetings, mainly to provide programs of real value. The result was this outline:

First, All, or nearly all, expressed a desire for a change from the purely demonstration type of program.

Second, That for one or more of our meetings, outside speakers be invited to address us on topics of interest to us, as teachers.

Third, That one meeting be devoted to the problem of better speech work, with perhaps someone from another school for the deaf to discuss and demonstrate new ideas in speech teaching.

Fourth, That we set aside one night as a "trouble meeting", when each teacher may bring up his or her own individual problem, to be discussed and, if possible, settled in open forum.

Fifth, That, in such demonstrations as shall be given by our own teachers no special preparation by the pupils shall be made prior to the meeting, and that the lesson or principle to be demonstrated shall be an entirely new one to the class.

Sixth, That we take up the study of psychology or some related subject bearing on our work.

Seventh, That, for purposes of comparison, teachers from the public schools be asked to demonstrate work that is being done in their schools.

Eighth, That a program committee be appointed to review the suggestions offered and to plan programs embracing as many of these suggestions as possible.

The Minnesota School, according to the *Companion* for May 22, 1930, has adopted a merit and demerit system as an aid to discipline.

A demerit system has recently been established at our school in connection with military discipline. Cards have been printed bearing the names of the boys on one side and a list of offenses calling for demerits on the other side. Most of the infractions of discipline are of minor nature, calling for but one demerit mark. The record is kept on a scale of one hundred and reports are made every week. A boy whose record for the week is ninety or less is deprived of certain privileges. As an incentive to the keeping of a perfect record for the week, any boy who gets no demerits all week is allowed two merits to carry over into the next week. We think this is a good plan, and we are hopeful that it will prove beneficial in the long run. It is in line with the custom in the classrooms and

trades of grading pupils according to excellence in conduct and work.

The Silent Observer, February 1, 1930, presents an instructive item, presumably by Mr. J. B. Chandler, editor, on the *per capita* cost in the Tennessee School.

The question has often been asked "How much does the state spend on one deaf pupil in a school year?"

In Tennessee the answer is $350.00. The state spends that much on each deaf pupil every nine months. That is $38.88 a month—almost $40.00.

Taking into consideration the fact that the school, through the state's purchasing agent, buys supplies at prices below those at which retail merchants can buy them at wholesale, every dollar goes about 25 per cent further in purchasing power than the average citizen's dollar. Therefore the school furnishes to each pupil monthly supplies and services which would amount to about $42.50 in the pupil's home.

This is considerably more than is spent on a hearing child in the average home.

So, you see, the school takes pretty good care of the deaf children of the state.

That field work has become a necessary part of the function of a school for the deaf is made clear by a most instructive report in the *Silent Hoosier*, October 4, 1929, by Miss Marguerite McNaughton, an instructor in the Indiana School, who acted as field agent during the summer of 1929.

Herewith I submit a brief itemized report of my work as field agent for the Indiana State School for the Deaf, from July 25th to September 3rd.

1. Thirty-two visits to homes of prospective pupils.
2. Twenty-one visits to offices of county and city school officials, superintendents and attendance officers, welfare workers, and Red Cross nurses. (Many away on vacations and failed to see them.)
3. Twenty-four 'phone calls.
4. Three visits to silk hose mills where nine of our deaf girls are employed. Fourteen visits to present and former pupils.
5. Visited and worked in forty-two of the ninety-two counties of the state.
6. Forty-two applications accepted.
7. Seven feeble-minded children rejected.
8. Twenty-eight beginners accepted.
9. Eight transfers from other schools.
10. Six doubtful as to grading.
11. Three picnics attended.
12. Aided in getting employment for six deaf girls and one deaf boy.

13. Personal attention in aiding three 1929 graduates in their preparation for college.
14. Traveled more than 4,300 miles.
15. Total expenditures for six weeks, $78.81.

The above report may not meet with the approval of the Superintendent and the Board, but whether or not I am asked to continue this work, I am thoroughly convinced that its value can not be wholly estimated. There are great possibilities ahead, things of infinite help that could only be thought of in this short summer. Social and religious centers should be organized in many places and the hearing children of deaf parents should be encouraged to interpret for the deaf. Personal interviews or correspondence with all school officials, social service workers and Red Cross nurses will help to inform the public that our school is really a part of the educational system of our state and not an asylum or institution.

It is significant that among the applicants seven feeble-minded ones were discovered who might have been accepted had there not been a personal interview. At an approximate *per capita* cost of $450, it is an evident fact that this one phase of field agent work should justify the expenditure of a comparatively small sum of money.

One need visit only one of the homes, in which there are deaf kiddies seven years of age, to see the fear, heartaches and worries which sicken the father and mother. They know so little about our school, and sending their babies out into what seems comparative darkness is too great a price. After an interview with someone whose information is first hand, enlightening and comforting, it is intensely interesting to see the change of attitude. In five homes in which I have visited, it was very difficult to break down prejudices against our school which had grown out of misinformation. It is a matter to be handled delicately, but surely.

The summer has been a beautiful one to me. I wish to thank all of you, the Superintendent and the members of the Board, for the opportunity you have given me of doing this work for our school. Its value can not be doubted.

The viewpoint of a discerning outsider regarding the managing control of state institutions appears in an open letter to the *Louisville Courier-Journal*—quoted in the *Kentucky Standard* for April 3, 1930, of which the following excerpt is part—by Judge Emmet Puryear, of Danville, Ky.:

I have, from my observation of the School for the Deaf, since I have lived in Danville, become firmly convinced that public institutions should be under the control of good men living in the neighborhood where such institutions are located. State boards, no matter how fine their personnel, can give no service comparable to such as local boards on the ground and personally interested in the work can give. Consider the School for the Deaf. Its Board has for years been composed of citizens from Boyle, Garrard, Lincoln, Mercer and other counties near the school. They have been in close personal touch with the school work, and with the superintendent

and teachers. Some members have been Democrats, some Republicans, but all have been good men interested in the institution and its work. The result of such control has been wonderful. Through all the years there has been no breath of scandal or mismanagement connected with any phase of the work; there has been economy, honor, and decency in the whole management, and kindness, ability and efficiency in its administration.

The April, 1930, number of *Just Once A Month,* Kendall School, carries a report by Miss Helen Fay, supervising teacher, of an informal talk to parents, the latter part of which gives advice on how parents may help during the summer vacation months.

Just a few words as to what you can do for your boys and girls during the long summer vacation and other times when they are at home. Next to the moral and physical welfare of the deaf child, our chief aim is to give him an understanding and use of the English language. The average child comes to us at the age of six or seven with no knowledge of his mother tongue. He does not know that he or anything else has a name. The unconscious education which his hearing brothers and sisters have gained through the ear, during these six or seven years, is to the deaf child a closed book. Think how many times a day the hearing child of eighteen months hears such words as "baby," "mother," "father," "sister," "brother," and such expressions as "Come to mother," "Pick it up," "Mustn't touch," "Give it to mama," "Baby want a drink?" Through constant repetition, his vocabulary grows without any effort on his part. If the deaf child could only see a word or sentence as often as the normal child hears them, half the battle would be won. This is not possible, but you parents, in fact all the family, have a great opportunity to help your child in this respect. Talk to him all the time. Learn to watch his eyes and grasp every chance to give him, through lip-reading, the words or sentences you think are in his mind when his eyes are on your face. Teach him to get into the habit of looking at your lips as much as possible. He has learned to do this in school and will take it for granted at home if you insist on it. Be sure the light falls on your face when you are speaking to him; otherwise he can not see your lips distinctly. I realize that all this takes time and patience and that much repetition will often be necessary. It is much easier to sign to Willie to pick up his coat and hang it in the closet than it is to give him the spoken language for it, but every time you do this you are neglecting to give your child an opportunity to grow mentally. Take the time to tell him the names of things; ask him to get things; tell him to do things for you. Teach him the names of things at the table. Ask him whether he would like some milk, instead of signing to him. Teach him to read from your lips the names of articles of furniture, clothing, etc. Never let an opportunity pass to have your child see spoken language. Picture books, magazines, and advertisements may be utilized for lip-reading practice. Describe the pictures in detail with the child watching your lips, pointing to the different objects as you name them. Later let

him point to them as you say the name. I think it would interest your child to make a lip-reading chart at home as we do in school. Hang up a large piece of cardboard somewhere and whenever the child learns to read a new word from the lips give him a picture of the object and let him paste it on the chart.

With the small children I should not advise trying to teach them to say new words or sentences, as the speech work really ought to be done by a teacher of experience. They will involuntarily try to imitate you when they watch your lips, and I should let it go at that. I should be glad, however, to have you go over with them the words they have already learned to say in school, and can send you a list of these; a few minutes' drill each day would help to keep them fresh in the child's mind during the vacation. The older children have considerable speech. Encourage them to use it and at all times insist that they talk as carefully and distinctly as possible.

If your child has any hearing at all, try to train that by saying the words he knows close to his ear in a loud tone. The understanding of spoken language through the ear can be developed by careful and patient training if the child has some hearing, but unless this hearing is developed, he will soon fail to make use of it.

What I have said thus far in regard to seeing language applies to the orally taught child—those who read the lips and speak—but is equally true of those taught manually. If your boy or girl is one of these, get the manual alphabet and learn to spell on your fingers. Let the child see words and sentences in correct English, either spelled on your fingers or written on paper.

Another point: It is easy through love and mistaken kindness to spoil these children who can not hear. Parents who insist on obedience, thoughtfulness and courtesy from hearing children are inclined to be less exacting in regard to their deaf child. This is all wrong. He should be treated just as his hearing brothers and sisters are, and in no way allowed to take advantage of his deafness. If anything, he should be more strictly trained in good habits, self-restraint and consideration for others, so that when he is older he can make his place in the world in spite of his deafness. I wonder if you realize what a joy it is to a teacher to have a child in her class who has been taught obedience and self-control at home in the early years before he comes to school.

See to it that your deaf child plays with hearing children, takes part in their games and good times. If he is allowed to feel that his deafness shuts him off from the society and fun of hearing playmates, he is apt to be lonely, self-centered and depressed.

When your child is at home see that he gets back to school at the appointed time; sometimes an hour or two out of school seems a small thing to you, but often it is that very time that the teacher has chosen to present a new lesson and she either has to postpone the exercise or go over it again a second time for the benefit of the tardy pupil.

The children are given a careful physical examination in the fall when they enter school. If it is advisable for adenoids or tonsils to be removed, or any other treatment to be given, try to do all in your power to have this attended to so that your child will not be handicapped by any physical defect that could be remedied.

This review can close in no better way than with a resumé in outline form of three excellent papers by Supt. E. S. Tillinghast of the South Dakota School on "School-Home Ideals," appearing in the *South Dakota Advocate* for January, February and March, 1930, and originally published in the *Volta Review*.

1. Schools for the deaf "are actually homes for the children who spend there three-fourths of the most impressionable ten or twelve years of their lives."

2. This school-home does not present the barrier "to intimate and normal communication of thought" which deaf children experience in their family homes.

3. The "home life of the child in the institution" outside the classroom is a factor "of immeasurable importance in each child's life."

4. Ideals have been the incentive to all worthwhile conduct in the history of the race.

5. It is the special function of the teacher to inculcate in the minds of children the great human ideals.

6. In particular, the wholesome ideals of mutual understanding and unselfish service are what make the home life one of greatest happiness. These ideals are the objectives that education attempts to place before the child.

7. Since the child "observes first and imitates first, in thought and in action, those immediately about him," it follows that every officer, teacher, worker and pupil in an institution should become "an exemplar of the unselfish service ideal." And as the school-home circle is larger than that of the ordinary home group, "there is need for the building of wider sympathies, broader personal interest, and still more of the same spirit of unselfish service."

8. "Institution talk," with acts corresponding, particularly on the part of "the elder members of an institution family," may have either an inspiring or demoralizing influence upon character development.

9. The second major ideal in the School-Home Plan should be that of "The Children First."

10. The Child-First Ideal is often compromised in schools for the deaf when incompetent teachers are appointed and when teachers who have lost efficiency are retained.

11. So far as concerns the children, educational opportunities remain unrealized when a low standard of accomplishment finds the school authorities unmoved—this often being accompanied by deception of the public with regard to the actual situation. A similar failing exists when there is waste of the precious school time of deaf children.

12. The Child-First Ideal is defeated when "a large school in a small town is controlled by local business, social and family interests, determined to retain for themselves, their town, their friends, and their relatives the largest possible share of school patronage." This may manifest itself in the appointment and retention of

teachers and employees regardless of actual value of services rendered.

13. Another cause for the lowering of the ideal is an unseemly desire on the part of the authorities for economy, manifesting itself in low salaries, inadequate school equipment, and abbreviated school terms.

14. A harmful effect may accrue from "politicians' waste," when the funds appropriated do not always provide the maximum benefit for the children but provide rather a special benefit to the person or persons furnishing the supplies or service. The deaf children "are the real and certain losers when, from a fixed appropriation, any useless purchase is made, or there is excessively liberal payment for inferior service, or for supplies, or when there is careless and wasteful handling or use of such supplies, or in the use of time for which full pay is expected."

15. The ideal of "The Child First" is defeated when the school authorities must resort to overcrowded classes; when the teachers are poorly trained; when there is no trained instructor in physical education; when there is no provision for a gymnasium; when the physical health of the children is not carefully guarded; when the food and kitchen service are of a poor grade; when the dormitory comfort of officers of the school is of greater concern than that of the children; when there are no comfortable, well furnished reading rooms; when the shop facilities are inadequate; when "the real vocational and educational purpose in view is subordinated to the economic one of turning out as much useful work as possible" so as to save the institution money; when there is a lack of proper playground space and equipment; when there is no effort to bring in deaf children to the school; when there is no attempt at scientific study of the problems of education of the deaf. All these failings constitute a serious indictment of waste and incompetence in management, and a neglect of the essential ideals for which the institution was established.

16. The child, in the school, should be considered as an individual, not as the expression of an "average." This would imply an intimate understanding, loving guidance, and freedom for individual development. If, in accord with this principle, "it becomes necessary to break up the great institutional lock-step organization into relatively small family units, or, in other words, adopt the cottage system, then surely the rights and interests of the deaf child demand that this be done."

MISCELLANEOUS

The Next Meeting of the Convention.—Dr. Elbert A. Gruver, president of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, sends word that definite plans concerning the next meeting of the organization will soon be available. The executive committee is expected to meet during the conference of heads of schools in Colorado

Springs at the end of this month, at which time a decision may be announced as to time, place, and program of activities.

Summer Meeting of the Association.—The American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf held its regular biennial meeting at Milwaukee, Wis., June 30 to July 4, 1930. Of the many worthwhile features of a varied program of activities, centered in the theme, "Normality for the Deaf Child," the outstanding were the address at the opening session by Dr. Frank E. Baker, president of the State Teachers College, who held up to criticism the worship of the spectacular and the lack of depth that mark the educational program of American schools in general; the address by Supt. H. M. McManaway, of the Virginia School, as president of the association, in which the aims of the organization were outlined; and an address and demonstration by Prof. Marcel Vigneron, of the department of phonetics of New York University, on the possibilities of developing latent hearing to the extent of voice audition.

Included in the business enacted were the adoption of a tentative plan for registering teachers of the deaf, and the election of two new members of the board of directors, Miss Clara E. Newlee, head teacher of the Parker Practice School, Chicago, and Dr. Harvey Fletcher, of the Bell Telephone Laboratories. Miss Mary McCowen, of Chicago, was elected honorary vice-president.

The annual summer school of the association was also in session, in collaboration with the Wisconsin State Teachers College, Milwaukee, June 21 to August 2, with an enrollment of 127 students, and a representative faculty.

Meeting of the N. A. D.—The Sixteenth Convention of the National Association of the Deaf, with more than two thousand members attending, was held this summer in

Buffalo, N. Y., August 4 to 8, inclusive, in commemoration of the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the society. The highlight of the meeting was the unveiling on the grounds of the Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution for the Deaf, Thursday, August 7, of a statue of the Abbé de l' Épée as a gift of appreciation by the deaf of America. Funds for the monument had been raised by a special committee and, at the behest of the association, Mr. Elmer E. Hannan, deaf sculptor of Washington, D. C., commissioned to execute the figure of de l' Épée in bronze.

The convention was also honored by the presence of numerous delegates from other countries, particularly Canada, France, Great Britain, Hungary, and Roumania. Among the noted foreign visitors were Mr. Wm. McDougall, hon. secretary-treasurer of the British Deaf and Dumb Association; M. Henri Gaillard, editor of *La Gazette des Sourds-Muets,* Paris; Mme. Marguerite Gaillard, secretary of Foyer des Sourds-Muets; and Mme. Georges Lamarque, of the faculty of the National Institution for the Deaf, Paris.

The convention adopted a series of resolutions: 1. expressing faith in a combined system of instruction for deaf children as a liberal plan; 2. opposing exclusion of deaf workmen from the benefits of compensation laws; 3. endorsing the efforts of science in the systematic study of the problems of deafness; 4. condemning the practice of aeroplane stunting in the attempt to restore hearing; 5. favoring the establishment of a vocational college for the deaf; 6. disapproving the tendency to refuse appointment to deaf teachers of the deaf; 7. deploring discrimination by insurance companies against deaf automobile drivers; and 8. condemning political influence in the management of schools for the deaf.

The Rev. Franklin P. Smielau, of Ohio, was elected president of the association to succeed Mr. A. L. Roberts, of Illinois.

Need of a More Satisfactory Attitude Toward the Handicapped.—At the First International Congress on Mental Hygiene, held in Washington, May 5-10, 1930, Dr. Bronson Crothers of Children's Hospital, Boston, presented a paper on "Mental-Hygiene Problems of Children with Sensory-Motor Defects," in the course of which he offered this comment regarding one of the factors involved in the problem of handicapped children.

> It is unfortunate, in the first place, that the handicapped child is classified and educated on the basis of his least useful characteristic. It is not only unfortunate, but inevitable that such words as "blindness," "deafness," "paralysis," and so on should be used. I see no way of avoiding these names, but I believe it can be demonstrated that a conception can be built up which deals not with the defect, but with the physiological residue that is still intact.
>
> If we can study the residue from a physiological standpoint, we may find that certain educational measures, now generally accepted, are not completely valid. It may well be that less emphasis on the liability and more upon the assets will be possible.

It strikes us that Dr. Crothers' suggestion is a wholesome one. Its constructive possibilities are to be found in the fact that it is properly a positive rather than a negative approach in dealing with questions concerning the handicapped.

Catalogue of the Library for Deaf Education, Manchester.—The authorities of the University of Manchester, England, plan to publish a Catalogue of the works contained in its Library for Deaf Education if a sufficient number of subscribers is assured. The books, which now number between 6,000 and 7,000 volumes, include works dealing with the various systems of teaching the deaf, lip-reading, speech training, psychology of speech and of hearing, phonetics, acoustics, and the anatomy, physiology, and diseases of the ear, as well as sociological, historical, and other works concerning the deaf. The Library also possesses sets (in most cases complete) of the chief periodicals relating to the deaf issued in England, France, Germany, Italy, Norway, Sweden, and the United States.

While primarily a guide to the resources of the Library, the proposed Catalogue will also serve, it is hoped, as a useful, though necessarily incomplete, bibliography of the subject. The Catalogue will be in two sections, Author and Subject, and the price is not expected to exceed 5s. per copy, postage extra. Orders for copies should be addressed, as early as possible, to the Librarian, Library for Deaf Education, The University, Manchester England.

This is a worthwhile project, for, with its mail-loan facilities, this splendid Library will thus greatly broaden the scope of its usefulness.

The Problem of Reading.—The quarterly service publication of the American Library Association, *Adult Education and the Library,* in its issue of April, 1930, presents an outline review of the subject "How to Make Reading Effective," an abridged statement of a paper appearing in an issue of *The Inquiry* of New York. The discussion starts with the principle that reading is a skill by which the capacity for extracting meaning from the written word is developed. As there may be much of value in this subject for the inquiring teacher of the deaf, we here reproduce, with permission, a portion of the outline. The series of problems suggested should furnish a fruitful topic for teachers' meetings.

Problem 1

How does one select one's reading?

1. Is it safe to rely upon book reviews?
2. Should one's reading be selected in terms of purpose?
3. Should reading be selected in terms of interest?
4. Should reading be selected in terms of timeliness?
5. In effective reading, does every reader become his own critic?

Problem 2

What sorts of discrimination are essential to effective reading?

1. Why is it difficult to make discriminations?
2. Does the written word carry more conviction than the spoken word?
3. Why does one need to discriminate between facts and opinions in reading?
4. How does one discriminate between what is important or unimportant in reading?

Problem 3

How may reading become learning?

1. A definition of reading—

"Reading is a series of snapshots, taken during the pauses in eye movements, that last for a fifth of a second. Each line requires from two to six or eight reading pauses, depending upon the familiarity of the material. During these pauses only a few words and the general form of the words are seen. These suggest the word as a whole. The supplementing of the parts seen is controlled by the associations that have been formed in the past between the visual form and the words controlled, by the immediate context, by the present purpose, and by the wider knowledge. Reading, then, is a process of reconstructing the meaning of the author on the basis of a few unseen symbols in the light of the knowledge of the reader and in terms of the purpose that may be guiding him at the moment."
—Pillsbury and Meader in "The Psychology of Language."

2. In terms of the above definition, which of the following factors is most important in making reading a learning process?

A. Past associations?

B. Immediate context?

C. Present purpose?

D. Extensive knowledge?

3. Is it part of learning to read in order to accumulate facts?

4. If effective reading is "building new wholes out of parts," how may this be accomplished?

5. Does one learn by reading what one does not agree with?

Problem 4

How may one utilize special skills for the purpose of making reading more effective?

1. What is the advantage of marking or underscoring passages in a book?

2. What value lies in marginal notes?

3. Does book reviewing make reading more effective?

4. Is it an advantage to re-phrase in other language important passages?

Problem 5

How may one develop an art of reading?

1. "The art of thought, like the art of running, or the actor's art of significant gesture, is an attempt to improve by conscious effort an already existing form of human behavior."—Graham Wallas in "The Art of Thought."

2. Assuming, then, that every reader has developed a set of reading habits, how may these be brought into heightened consciousness for the purpose of improvement and facility?

3. What are the reading habits of members of the group?

4. Is there a way of ordering one's reading so as to fit it into a pleasing rhythm?

5. In what way may reading be adapted to changing moods?

6. How may one prevent reading from becoming a congestion?

Problem 6

What should be the order of reading?

1. Should reading flow in chain fashion? That is, from one logical link to the next?
2. If one follows the clues of interest, how may one be assured that logical order will arrive?
3. If one is following a central theme in reading, should one read parallel subject matter?
4. Or, should one read tangential material in order to illuminate the central theme?
5. How does one know when one knows enough about any subject to warrant action?
6. What does "knowing" mean?
7. How effective are reading lists?

Concluding Chapter of Miss Frick's Story.—In "Light at Last," Kathryne Mary Frick, deaf-blind graduate of the Pennsylvania Institution at Mt. Airy, gives in the June, 1930, *Atlantic Monthly* the third and concluding chapter of how she was educated. Here she relates with as great an appeal as in the previous parts of the story how her teacher, Miss Julia A. Foley, turned her mind to the acquisition of a ready command of language, how the ordinary moral and social concepts were inculcated, and finally how she learned speech — all woven into accomplishment by the combination of a willing-pupil spirit and a skilful, devoted teacher endowed with a desire to serve.

One value of the narrative is that it acquaints the public in general with something of the environment of a school for the deaf. But primarily the story as a whole awakens interest in what can be achieved—when the will is there—against well-nigh insurmountable obstacles.

Work for the Deaf in South Africa.—The Report of the First Conference of Workers Amongst the Deaf, and the Deaf and Dumb, of South Africa, held at Bloemfontein, June 25-26, 1928, has just come to hand. With the Rev. A. W. Blaxall of Capetown as chairman, the conference gave consideration to the problems complicating work on behalf of the deaf of South Africa. The greatest diffi-

culty, apparently, arises from the existence of two official national languages. The Conference agreed to establish a National Council for the Deaf, and the necessary steps for organization were authorized.

The opinion of the Conference also resolved itself into a number of definite recommendations:

1. For administrative and maintenance purposes a school of 100 deaf children should be graded on an equal basis with a school of 400 hearing children.

2. Owing to the difficulties of the oral method of instruction, it is not possible to teach the two official languages in the same residential school. Exception, however, can be made with local children in the first two years of school work.

3. Special provision should be made for the education of hard-of-hearing children.

4. Feeble-minded deaf children should be provided for in a school for the deaf.

5. Education for the deaf of European origin should be made compulsory from the ages of 7 to 17, and optional at 4. Further optional education beyond the age of 17 should rest with the discretion of the Union Department of Education. The government should also permit a minimum of 2 years additional vocational training beyond the age of 7.

6. The Government is urged to assume the task of collecting the balance of part maintenance due from parents, and to pay direct to the schools the full maintenance grants.

7. Teachers of the deaf should receive special salary consideration. The Government is also urged to provide a suitable pension plan for teachers of the deaf.

8. The Government is further petitioned that a special salary be dependent upon the acquisition of a recognized diploma; that diploma certification be assumed by the

Department of Education, and that the latter agency initiate steps for the training of teachers of the deaf.

9. The ratio of ten pupils to one teacher should be an absolute maximum.

10. There is urgent need for making suitable provision for the education of non-European deaf children in the Union.

11. The oral method is recognized as the most effective method for teaching the deaf.

12. Active measures should be taken to minister to the spiritual needs of the deaf.

13. The Government policy of centralization of schools for the deaf might with advantage be supplemented by the establishment of day-schools in a few strategic centers.

Interchangeable Sensory Experiences.—According to an article by M. J. Pautré in the May, 1930, *Revue Générale de l' Enseignement des Sourds-Muets,* under the heading "Sensory Illusions in Lip-Reading" (Les Illusions Sensorielles dans la Lecture sur les Lèvres), the art of lip-reading is not without its store of surprises for the one who undertakes to teach it. On occasion there come up unexpected and very odd sensory and psychological experiences. Normally, the spoken word is perceived in its audible vibratory form by the ear. In the case of individuals who have but recently suffered loss of hearing, there sometimes occurs the singular phenomenon of sensory substitution; the *seen* word seems to be *heard.*

To illustrate, M. Pautré gives instances from his experience with lip-reading students. In one case, a young man lately afflicted with acute deafness would, upon recognizing short phrases on the lips, assert with emphasis that he heard them perfectly. A negative result, however, was produced when the eyes were turned from the speaker or when the light was poor. The instructor explains this as an instance in which the subject, by in-

termediary, mental activity, interpreted visual impressions in terms of auditory experiences.

As to the effect of this upon the progress of instruction, M. Pautré states:

> This psychological phenomenon presents a certain advantage in favor of the subjects in whom it appears. Their hearing, indeed, seems to improve in proportion as they perfect themselves in the practice of lip-reading. They believe they hear better than they really do and thereby become enthused, which goes without saying.
>
> On the other hand, they are quite incapable of properly appraising the benefits that they derive from lip-reading. All success is credited to the effect of hearing; all failure is attributed to the deficiencies of lip-reading which, from this fact, finds itself greatly underestimated.

The writer also refers to another discussion of the same matter in an issue of the *Revue Générale* for January, 1911. In the latter the story is cited of a young woman whose hearing was greatly impaired but who declared she experienced auditory sensations when *seeing* anyone speak, these sensations, however, being absent when visibility was poor. The same person told of a typical instance, where in some curious manner a visual impression called up what appeared to be genuine auditory images. Thus, from her apartment, noticing one day a woman about to sweep, it seemed to her she heard very distinctly the sound made by the broom passing at regular intervals over the stones in the yard, even though the closed window and the distance at which this occurred ruled out the possibility that hearing could be the perceiving agency.

In such cases, it is clear, the recall of the auditory images proved only an excitation with a visual origin. M. Pautré, however, gives another instance in which a similar experience arises from semi-auditory stimuli. Thus, in one case, when lip-reading was carried on without voice, there was no internal auditory recall. But when the sound of the spoken word, gradually raised in intensity, reached the ear as a more or less indistinct

"noise," the old-time auditory imagery was aroused. However, "the charm" ceased when the eyes were turned from the speaker.

Intelligence Testing for the Deaf.—A supplementary report on the work of Dr. Drever and Dr. Collins of the University of Edinburgh dealing with performance tests of intelligence as applied to deaf children appears in the *Teacher of the Deaf* for June, 1930. (See ANNALS, vol. lxxiii, no. 5, November, 1928, pp. 469-470, and vol. lxxv, no. 2, March, 1930, pp. 163-166.)

On this occasion the investigators deal with three topics —(1) the results of the tests with children who possess some hearing or who had some hearing up to the age of three; (2) the results of the tests with non-boarding pupils; and (3) the performance of London children. In each of these problems, the reliability of the results is held in question because of the small number of children studied in each case. The results, though, can be said to point to certain possibilities calling for further investigation.

The medians for children with some hearing either after onset of deafness or possessed up to the age of three suggest the provisional conclusion that, as regards the school period, the residual hearing affords no advantage so far as can be determined by the Drever-Collins Performance Test of Intelligence. Also, the general conclusion is borne out that deaf children as a whole, compared with hearing children, are retarded, which seems to be a reversal of the original finding of the same investigators who asserted that the first results from their tests indicated practically no retardation.

With respect to day pupils, the results seem to show for girls a close approximation to the general norms, but that for the boys quite some irregularity exists, with a distinct falling off for the latter in the higher ages.

That is, male day pupils seem to exhibit inferiority with respect to the normal performance of deaf children, a failing that does not appear in the female day pupils. The investigators are led to ask whether this may not mean that the day-school boy after twelve is socially more isolated than the one who is at a residential school.

The results also show a slightly higher average of performance for the children who reside in London as compared with the general findings.

Speech-Reading in the College Curriculum.—Bernice Elliott, director of publicity, Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich., tells in the *Journal of the National Education Association* for June, 1930, of the steps taken in that institution to aid the individual who is handicapped by reason of impaired hearing. For the past three years the Michigan State Normal College has been a pioneer among colleges in offering a speech-reading course in its department of special education, the purpose being twofold: First, to help the individual involved to acquire skill in lip-reading itself; and second, to build up in him a personal self-confidence that might have been broken as a result of failing hearing. The course itself comprises 20 hours of work in speech-reading each week, that is, 2 hours a day of classwork, and 2 hours for practice. The Jena method is followed.

Noteworthy progress along the same line has also been made at Ohio State University within the past year, under the direction of Dr. G. Oscar Russell. Audiometer tests of students who failed in part or all of their work having revealed the presence of defective hearing in quite a number of cases, the university is attempting to bring about a readjustment for such individuals, particularly by instruction in lip-reading. A further extension of this special work is contemplated.

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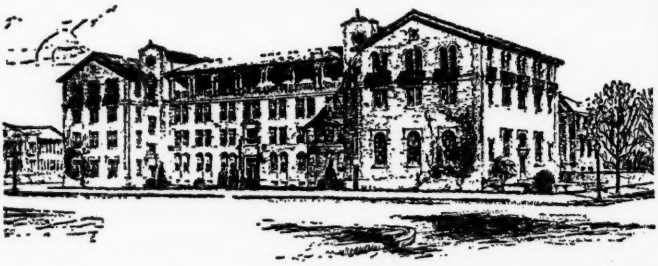

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